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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

PARIS THE MAGNIFICENT.

BY H. H. RAGAN.

II.

THE most remarkable addition to Paris architecture within recent years is the Eiffel Tower erected in the Champ-de-Mars for the exhibition of 1889.

It stands opposite the Trocadéro Palace, not far from the Seine. From its upper platform at a height of more than nine hundred feet above the river can be seen Paris, its suburbs, and the country in every direction for fifty miles, the hills and the valleys all smoothed away to a dead level and the whole vast city and its surroundings grasped within one view.

We referred in the preceding article to those twelve fine avenues which radiate from the triumphal arch of Napoleon. One of those avenues would take us away out through the fortifications to the principal park of Paris, the Bois de Boulogne. This

park has an area of over two thousand acres and is celebrated for its beauty. It was for-

merly the hunting-ground of the kings, but finally one of them presented it to the city, on condition that the city should thereafter assume its maintenance as a park. It lies

close against the fortifications, and during the Franco-Prussian War many of the trees in the park were cut down in preparation for the siege, and many more were destroyed during the bombardment.

Among numerous smaller parks within the city proper, that is, within the line of fortifications, one of the most beautiful, though one of the smallest, is the Parc Monceaux. It lies in the heart of the fashionable residence quarter, and is much frequented. The ground was once the property of Prince Philippe, who called himself Philippe Égalité—Equality Philippe—in the vain object of currying favor with the mob. When his head

had been taken off by the sharp guillotine in 1793, the property was seized by the



THE VENDÔME COLUMN.

people. Later Napoleon, as emperor, in a fit of generosity presented it to his great chancellor, and that gentleman, in a fit of prudence, finding it to be decidedly an elephant on his hands, gave it back to his imperial master.

Away toward the western end of Paris, in the Quarter St. Antoine, whence come revolutions, stands a memorial of one of them—the July Column. A little more than a hundred years ago the place was occupied by the Bastille, a famous prison, filled not

blank, were granted—yes openly sold by the king's ministers to his powerful nobles, who had only to fill the blank with the name of the victim to consign him to a fate worse than death. No wonder the Bastille came to be regarded as the very emblem of oppression. No wonder that when oppression had done its work, when the fires of hate and revenge which had been smoldering and gathering strength for ages leaped into a roaring conflagration, their first fury swept the Bastille from the earth. The first Na-



BOULEVARD DE LA MADELEINE.

with criminals and desperadoes, which a just law had separated from their fellows, but with some of the best men and women of France, who, for one reason or another, had incurred the displeasure of the ruling faction. In those days to know anything to the discredit of the court favorite was the most heinous of crimes, and the banishment was swift and sure. It seems incredible that those *lettres de cachet*, as they were called, secret orders of imprisonment with the space for the name of the victim left

poleon proposed to adorn the spot where it had stood with a colossal bronze monument; but before the design could be carried through another revolution had restored the Bourbons, and still another had sent them flying for their lives. The Revolution of 1830 seemed to afford a fitting subject for the commemorative column, and the erection of the shaft was then decided upon. But the country was ten years older, and more than half-way to another revolution, before it was finally set up. Upon the

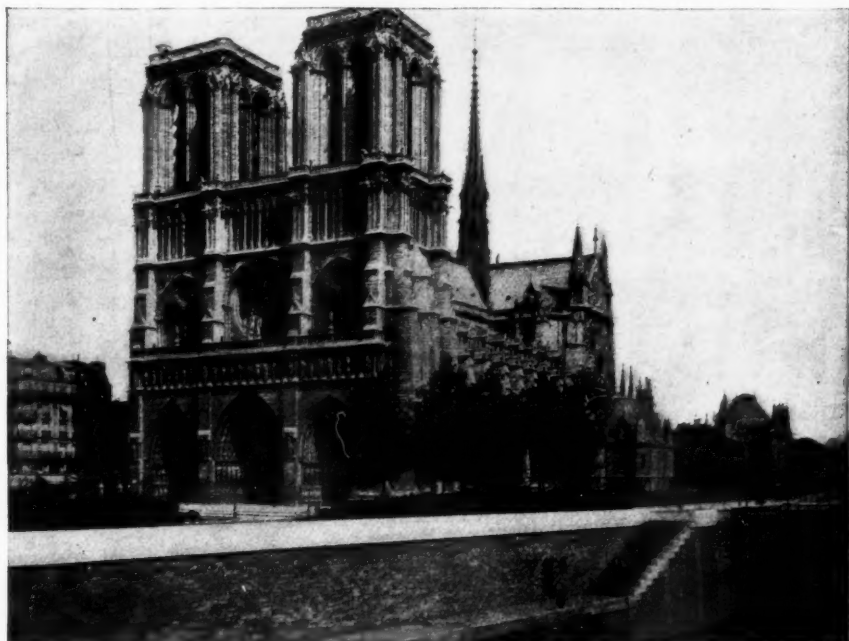
summit stands a gilded figure which many people believe to be the herald Mercury, new lighted on a heaven-kissed hill. The mistake is not unpardonable, for the figure closely resembles that of the messenger god; but it is intended to represent the genius of liberty, holding a torch in one hand and a broken chain in the other.

Turning westward at this point, and walking along the bank of the Seine, we soon reach an important historic locality. As we stand here and look down the river, eight of the twenty-two bridges which cross it within the line of fortifications are in sight. The section on the left, across the Seine, is the old island of the city, where Paris had its birth, and where, in ancient days, its whole life centered. Here, bordering the river, stands the great Palace of Justice, or court-house. It occupies the



THE HÔTEL DE VILLE.

site of the royal palace of the early kings, and still encloses some of the structures built by St. Louis early in the thirteenth century. It has suffered from many conflagrations. The central portion is a part of the old Conciergerie, the famous prison of the Revolution where Marie Antoinette and many other victims of '93 awaited the



THE CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE DAME.



THE PANTHEON.

sharp guillotine, and where, too, Dickens' Sidney Carton, in the "Tale of Two Cities,"

substituted himself for the condemned Darnay, to die in his stead. In the six days from September 2 to 9, 1792, three hundred and twenty-eight persons were butchered in this building, besides those murdered in other prisons of Paris. The gloomy cell where Marie Antoinette was confined, and whence on the 16th or 18th of October she was led to execution, is now a chapel, and on its altar stands the crucifix she kissed as she went to death. Connected with this cell by an arched passage is another, to which, on the 27th of July, 1794, the fanatic Robespierre was dragged, to perish the next day by that same bloody guillotine to which he had himself consigned so many victims.

But a few rods from this place is the principal flower-market of Paris, where on Wednesdays and Saturdays the display is particularly fine; and it is decidedly refreshing to step in here and inhale the fragrance of the rose after spending an hour or two in the gloomy dungeons of the Conciergerie and the vaults of the ancient



MUSEUM OF THE LOUVRE, GALERIE D'APOLLON.



THE LOUVRE.

chapel, filled with the memories of departed glory.

Over on the right bank of the Seine stands the Hôtel de Ville, or town hall. The old structure begun in 1533 was for three hundred and fifty years the focus of Parisian life and the rallying-place of the Revolution. On May 24, 1871, the Communist rabble, then in possession, seeing the end of their brief reign approaching filled the building with powder and combustibles and set it on fire. The entire structure, with a library of a hundred thousand volumes and historical documents and works of art of inestimable value, was burned to ashes, and the mob who perpetrated the deed perished in the flames they kindled, or were shot down by the guard in their efforts to escape. But the spirit of the French people is not broken by such calamities as this, and on July 14, 1882, they dedicated the new Hôtel de Ville, risen on the ashes of the old. The new structure is on a larger scale, and is practically a reproduction of the old, but

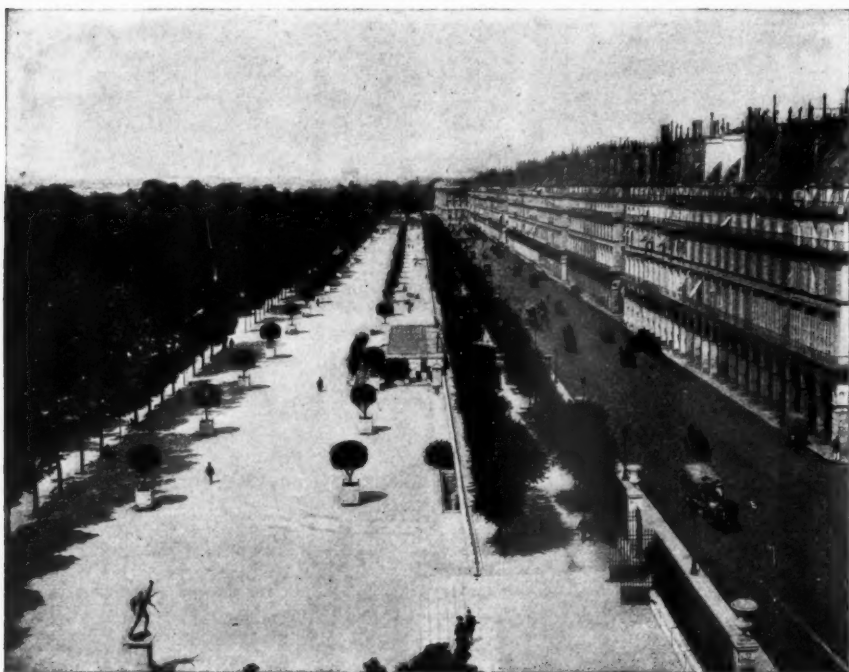
with its new white, fresh marble it can give little suggestion of the thrilling historic associations which clustered round the spot.

Walking on a little further we reach another locality intimately associated with one of the most thrilling episodes in French history. It is the little church of St. Germain l'Auxerrois, whose foundations date back to the time of Charlemagne. It was the bell hanging in one of the towers of this church which, on the night of the 24th of August, 1572, pealed out the signal for the massacre of St. Bartholomew, a crime which, though often charged to the account of religion, had in it far more of politics than of religion, and far more of personal hatreds than of either. There are those who tell us the world is steadily growing worse. Let those who think so try to picture a St. Bartholomew's, coolly planned and deliberately executed in any civilized nation, and under any pretext, in the nineteenth century.

Away over in the heart of the Latin, or Students' Quarter, rises the great dome

of the Pantheon. In the year 512, St. Genevieve, the patron saint of Paris, a young girl who once saved the city from an attack of the Huns, was buried on this spot. The little chapel which rose over her remains soon gave place to a great church, which in its turn fell into decay, and in 1764 Louis XV. began the erection of the present building—the same year, by the way, in which he began the Madeleine. The revolutionists of '89 turned it into a temple of glory, and dedicated it to the

Walking a little way down the Boulevard St. Michel, which is the chief street of the Latin Quarter, we stop a moment before the Hôtel de Cluny, which now constitutes a very interesting museum. The building is one of the oldest in Paris, and occupies perhaps its most historic site. For here the Roman governor of Gaul had his palace, and here Julian the Apostate was proclaimed Roman emperor by the troops in 360. Here also the early Frankish kings resided. The building, which is of



GARDEN OF THE TUILERIES AND THE RUE DE RIVOLI.

great men of France. The building was, however, for many years restored to its original design as a church—only to be closed again in 1885, after the obsequies of Victor Hugo, since which time it has remained a secular building. In the vaults of the Pantheon Voltaire and Rousseau were buried, and their tombs are still pointed out, though their ashes have long since been scattered to the four winds of heaven.

medieval architecture, was built by the Benedictine monks of the Abbey of Cluny about the beginning of the sixteenth century. Here Mary, the sister of Henry VIII. of England and widow of Louis XII. of France, resided for some time, and the chamber she occupied is still called the chamber of the "White Queen," from the white mourning which she wore, in accordance with the customs among the queens of France. Here also were married

James V. of Scotland and Madeleine, daughter of Francis I. of France, the parents of the unhappy Queen of Scots.

Walking on down to the end of this broad boulevard, and crossing a branch of the Seine, we stop upon the old island of the city where ancient Paris stood, before its most historic structure, the great cathedral of Notre Dame.

The great church has occupied this spot from the fourth century, but no portion of the present edifice dates farther back than 1173, and the west front was completed in 1222 and is considered an excellent specimen of the earliest Gothic architecture. The great rose window in the center of the front is forty-two feet in diameter. The front is divided into three distinct stories, or buttresses, and these into three upright sections. At the base of each section is a deeply recessed portal, which is very elaborately and beautifully engraved with figures of saints and angels and demons, for the Gothic architects did not hesitate to represent the Prince of Darkness himself upon the sacred edifice. The scene from the central portal is the "Last Judgment." Upon the wooden platform erected for that purpose, just in front of the central doorway, on August 18, 1572, Prince Henry of Navarre, afterward king of France as Henry IV., was married to Margaret of Valois, sister of Charles IX., on which occasion, as all the grave historians take especial pains to inform us, the blushing bride, for some reason best known to herself no doubt, declined to make any answer whatever to the interesting question, "Do you take this man," etc., etc., whereupon the king, her brother, who stood opposite her, placed his royal hand upon her head and pushed it down for her in a decided and emphatic, if not very graceful, nod of assent.

The lofty columns and grand old arches of this church have looked down upon many strange pictures. Strange indeed the scene on that day in '93 when, the church having been converted into a temple of reason, a painted ballet dancer, enthroned in regal state as the goddess of reason, sat here to

receive the worship of the people. Here also Napoleon was crowned Emperor of the French by Pope Pius VII.—or, rather, he crowned himself to signify that he owed the scepter of France to no other arm than his own.

Following the right bank of the Seine westward we come to the vast pile of buildings which comprise under a single roof the Louvre and the Tuileries. The Palace of the Tuileries owes its origin no doubt to Catherine de Medici. But it has been extended, adorned, and beautified by every ruler of France from that day to this. It has been sacked and plundered by the mob no less than four times. On the last occasion, in 1871, the ruin was made complete. Two wings and a portion of one were soon rebuilt, and the central portion was permitted to stand for several years in ruins, a witness to the latest Reign of Terror in France. It has now, however, been completely swept away and its site converted into an extension of the Tuileries Gardens.

The Louvre is, as you are aware, one of the largest and richest galleries of painting and sculpture in the world. The most extensive of its halls is the Grand Gallery, which is very nearly one sixth of a mile long. The room is divided by arches into sections, each section being devoted, as a rule, to the works of a particular school of art. The handsomest of the galleries in the Louvre is undoubtedly the great Gallery of Apollo. It was named from the ceiling paintings depicting Apollo's victory over the python. The portraits upon the walls, which represent distinguished French artists, are not painted, but are worked in gobelin tapestry. It would require months to form anything like an adequate conception of the vast treasures of the Louvre. But even the hurried visitor may carry away in his memory some image of beauty to add to his life's happiness.

The chief treasure of the Louvre, the *piece de resistance*, is the famous Venus dug up by a poor peasant on the island of Milos in 1820. The peasant was working in his garden, when his spade slipped from his hand and disappeared in the earth.

He had, by his digging, broken through the roof of a little summer-house belonging to an ancient villa which in the progress of the ages had been covered by the slowly accumulating soil and lost from the sight and memory of man. Here was found this famous figure, which, say the authorities, is the only statue of Venus handed down to us in which she is represented not merely as a beautiful woman but as a goddess. You may see the Venus of Milo once, perhaps, without being particularly impressed, but I doubt if you can see it often without feeling the marvelous beauty of that face.

There are, of course, many other galleries in Paris which would well repay a visit, among them the Luxembourg. The Gardens of the Luxembourg are the chief breathing-space of the Latin Quarter, in the heart of which they are situated.

A visit to the French capital would not be complete without at least a glance at the palace of Versailles, situated about eleven miles southwest of Paris. Louis XIV. became very much disgusted with the court residence at St. Germain, because he could never look out of his window without seeing the towers of the old cathedral, St. Denis, the burial-place of the kings of France; so he determined to remove to Versailles. Apparently it was the last place in the world for a royal residence. But obstacles which would have daunted an ordinary sovereign only stimulated the vanity of this monarch. So he set an army of men and horses at work to convert a wilderness into a paradise.

It was done, and the bills for palace and park footed up, in round numbers, two hundred millions of dollars.

This royal palace and grounds have been the scene of many stirring historical events. It was in the tennis-court that, in 1789, the members of the Third Estate, finding themselves excluded from the Assembly hall, met and took a solemn oath to stand together and keep up their agitation till such time as the constitution should be established on a firm basis. To this place that same year surged the Parisian mobs, until the king and queen were forced to take up their residence in Paris. Here, on the 18th of January, 1871, King William of Prussia was proclaimed Emperor of Germany, and in Versailles now take place the elections of presidents of the French Republic. Owing to the enormous expense of keeping up this magnificent property it has fallen into disuse as a residence, but a great part of it is occupied by the museum of French history.

From the time of Louis XIV., the personification of absolutism, who built these walls, to the present day France has taken a long stride forward. In a little more than a century she has changed her form of government to a greater or less extent nine times. It cannot be said that each of these changes has been for the better. The progress has sometimes been in the wrong direction. But on the whole the nation has moved forward, and France is a greater France to-day than ever before.

MIRABEAU IN THE REVOLUTION.

BY A. M. WHEELER, LL.D.

PROFESSOR OF HISTORY IN YALE UNIVERSITY.

THE States-General met on the 5th of May, in 1789. The situation at that time may be summed up as follows:

An absolute monarchy nominally all-powerful, really so weak as to be contemptible; the army, its main support,

already in process of dissolution; the finances so disorganized that national bankruptcy seemed inevitable; the brilliant foreign policy of earlier times under total eclipse; rank administrative abuses of all sorts, and complete failure of all attempts to remove them; rivalries, jealousies, and

bitter quarrels among the governing classes; a government demanding the maximum of service from its subjects and giving the minimum in return; an unenlightened despotism.

Twenty-five millions of people, vain, impulsive, easily excited; one million privileged, that is, holding places, honors, and emoluments for which they rendered no equivalent; twenty-four millions bearing, in very unequal proportions, the burdens of the state, and hampered in their activities by manifold restrictions and monopolies; the lower orders living in great poverty; the once powerful sentiment of loyalty greatly weakened; no political discipline, and no local organization; discontented masses of people feeling their way blindly toward something better without knowing what they wanted; an atmosphere filled with portents and vague rumors of coming change.

A body of twelve hundred men, half of them representing the one million, the other half the twenty-four millions; elected amid great excitement, and closely bound by minute and often conflicting instructions; strangers to each other; without political experience and ignorant even of the rudiments of parliamentary usage; with no acknowledged leaders and no definite program; many of them men of ability, but unpractical—enthusiasts, dreamers, diletante politicians, metaphysical statesmen; all of them under the influence of the same prejudices, the same delusions and illusions as the nation itself.

At the head, as nominal sovereign, a king, kind-hearted, well-meaning, but absolutely incapable of governing or of selecting and steadily supporting a really capable minister; by his side a queen, intellectually his superior, but thoughtless, perverse, emotional, and already cruelly compromised in the eyes of the masses; as chief adviser, a successful private banker of many virtues, fertile in temporary financial expedients, possessing the confidence of the nation yet not deserving it, with no definite policy, and withal utterly unable to interpret the mighty forces in action around him.

Apart from all, isolated alike by his virtues and by his vices, stood Mirabeau, conspicuous for his talents, but an object of suspicion and distrust. He had already built the barrier which proved to be insurmountable.

Chateaubriand tells us that, when quite young, he was presented to Mirabeau, then at the height of his fame. "He looked at me," he wrote fifty years later, "with his eyes of pride, of vice, and of genius; and, laying his hand on my shoulder, he said to me: 'My enemies will never forgive me my superiority.' I still feel the impress of that hand, as if Satan had touched me with his claws of fire."

It was natural that the intense old Royalist, looking back through the mist of years, should see something demoniacal about the shadowy form of the great popular tribune. But in truth there were many who took essentially the same view of him during his lifetime. On moral grounds alone the nation which had endured Louis XV. had no right to reject Mirabeau. He was no worse in this respect than many men of his own class would have been if they had had the same capacity for evil. Nor was there in his political opinions, which were already well known, anything so extraordinary as to account for the bad preeminence he occupied. But there was something so lawless, so volcanic in his nature, that he startled, repelled, frightened more than he attracted. It was his misfortune that, persuasive as he was, he could not remove existing prejudices without creating new ones. The whole of his political career was a concentrated and desperate effort to get a foothold—to gain the confidence of the Assembly, the court, the nation; and, with all his splendid abilities, he failed. There is something immensely pathetic in the herculean struggles of those two years, ending in the grave.

The summoning of the States-General was a confession of weakness on the part of the king. Reduced to impotence by the selfish action of the nobles and clergy, he took this step with great reluctance, and as a last resort. It was really an appeal to

the Third Estate—to the nation at large—against the privileged classes; but neither he nor his advisers imagined for a moment that it could result in the transfer of sovereignty from himself to the nation. Nor was such a result at that time desirable; and perhaps it was unnecessary. The twelve hundred men were in no sense fitted to govern France, and the French people had yet to pass through a tremendous experience before they were fitted for self-government. On the other hand, a wise and capable minister, by taking boldly the initiative, might possibly have kept control. Mirabeau said: "If Necker had a grain of sense he could get from us, within eight days, sixty millions in taxes, one hundred and fifty millions in loans, and on the ninth day send us home. If he had any character he might play the rôle of Richelieu." This was said, however, on the assumption that the minister was ready to make very important and permanent concessions. Mirabeau was fully convinced that the time had come when personal government was no longer possible in France; and, from his point of view, the great work to be accomplished was to make the change from personal to constitutional government in such a way as to cause no upheaval, and no essential loss to the royal prerogative. To this object he devoted all his efforts.

Manifestly the best way—perhaps the only way—to accomplish it was through the government itself. It must take the lead and act instantly. There had been too much delay already. What would happen if the six hundred delegates of the Third Estate should once get hold, no man could tell. If the government wanted help Mirabeau was ready to help it. He had a sublime confidence in his ability to do the work. Perhaps he overestimated his own powers; he certainly underestimated the forces in opposition. The overtures which he promptly made to the king and to Necker were received with scant courtesy and promptly rejected. What else could be expected of such men? Their attitude forced him to act against them. Abandoning for a time the policy of his choice, he

determined to win a commanding position in the States-General, and from that vantage-ground compel the minister to treat with him, or drive him from power. That was a resolution big with fate. In seeking to accomplish his main object by this indirect method the chances were that he would conjure up revolutionary forces which would not down at his bidding.

Now, when once in motion in the new direction, he was swept along with the tide. He took a leading part in the great struggle over the question of organization; he did more perhaps than all others toward transforming the twelve hundred men, who had come up to Versailles to present their grievances to the sovereign and to vote him some money, into a body which assumed on its own authority the right to make a constitution for France. The 23d of June, the day on which the States-General virtually became the National Assembly, was a day of great glory for Mirabeau. He richly deserved his triumph. But the new power which his tact and energy had created was already beyond his control. Even the name it bore had been adopted against his wishes.

The partisans of the old *régime*, chagrined at Mirabeau's victory, would not acknowledge themselves beaten. They foolishly attempted to overawe the National Assembly by a display of force. Mirabeau, in one of the noblest pleas ever made, urged the king to withdraw the troops which had been assembled around Versailles. But the forces of reaction had the upper hand. Necker was dismissed, the Breteuil ministry came into power, and the answer to that was, as Mirabeau had predicted, a terrific outburst of "the people's wrath," the capture of the Bastille, the murder of Foulon and Berthier, the burning of the *châteaux*, and the more or less general breaking down of law and order throughout the land.

While the old monarchy was thus tumbling into ruin around it, the great Assembly, now the only authority in which the nation had any confidence, instead of taking up at once the work of framing the

new organic law, was busily engaged in discussing a fad of Lafayette—the declaration of the abstract rights of man. The Americans had prefaced their Revolution with a similar declaration, and the “hero of two worlds” could see no reason why that which had been done on the banks of the Schuylkill by a new people occupying a virgin soil could not be done just as appropriately under totally different circumstances on the banks of the Seine. If anything was certain in France at that time it was that this Assembly, if it was to retain the confidence reposed in it, must act quickly, wisely, decisively; otherwise the power it had usurped from the king would pass from it to the mobs of the capital. It utterly failed to realize the gravity of the situation. Flattered by the adulation bestowed upon it, puffed up with self-importance, it allowed itself to be repeatedly interrupted in its work, split up into factions, went off into endless digressions, became involved in numerous contradictions, and finally closed its career with one of the most stupendous acts of political folly on record.

Its work had a very direct and important bearing upon the career of Mirabeau. His natural sphere of influence was in the Assembly, and he worked with tremendous energy to accomplish through it the objects he had in view. With the overthrow of the old *régime* the Revolution was to him practically ended and henceforth the great problem was how best to secure the liberties already won. These must be accepted frankly by king and Assembly alike. Any attempt to restore the old order would be madness; further and more radical changes would lead to anarchy. He therefore stood forth, often at the risk of his popularity, sometimes at the risk of his life, as the steady champion of the royal prerogative against the onslaughts of the radical majority. If he varied the program from time to time and played the demagogue, it was only that he might keep his hold on the Assembly and overawe the reactionary tendencies at court. His great hope through the summer and autumn of '89 was to bring king and Assembly to-

gether. Hence his strenuous efforts to form a parliamentary ministry of which he himself was to be the head. That hope was defeated by the famous decree of November 7, declaring that no man could at the same time be a member of the Assembly and minister of the king. It was a crushing blow, and it really destroyed him.

There followed a series of secret intrigues, and at length, in the spring of 1790, the well-known agreement with the court.

Since the destruction of the old *régime* the king and queen had been helpless spectators of events. Marie Antoinette looked on in mute protest while the Assembly was destroying the royal prerogative bit by bit; she did not attempt to intermeddle. She thought at first that this “French sickness” would cure itself; that, without any effort on her part, there would come a change in public sentiment which would surely bring the unfortunate nation back to its allegiance. Only time and patience were necessary.

But as the months rolled on without bringing any signs of change, she naturally began to consider ways and means. The change might come if the royal family could escape from hostile Paris to some point on the frontier, where, in the midst of loyal troops, the loyal portion of the nation could rally to its support. It was with this project in mind that she consented to the arrangement with Mirabeau, whom she regarded as her most dangerous enemy, and had hitherto utterly abhorred. In the preceding autumn she had met his offers of assistance with a disdainful “Not yet so low as that.” Now she was led to think he might be of service. Perhaps he might assist her in the execution of her plan; at any rate he might be kept from doing further harm. And so the bargain, for such it was from her point of view, was struck. The terms she offered were liberal—the payment of his debts, a generous monthly stipend, and at the end a princely sum in case he proved faithful. He in turn stipulated for the entire confidence of the royal pair, and pledged unswerving loyalty to them and to the monarchy. The arrangement was to be a profound secret, unknown even to the ministers, and the sums

of money were to be paid, not to him, but to a third person for his benefit. Thus the man who aspired to become prime minister of France lost all possibility of independent action and dropped to the position of a hired servant.

What is the explanation? It is true, as has often been said, that Mirabeau did not sell his principles. In the remarkable series of state papers which he prepared for the king there is nothing at variance with his previous utterances. It is also true that he never abandoned the cause of the Revolution. His aim was to induce the king to put himself at the head of the movement and bring it back to the point where he himself had tried to stop it, and beyond which it ought never to have been allowed to go. But the object of the queen was utterly different. She wanted to restore the old *régime*, and to that end she sought to disarm its bitterest enemy. Her letters tell us that she never gave, and never intended to give, Mirabeau her confidence. She never consulted him except as to measures relating to her personal safety. She never referred to any of the larger features of his policy, and probably never comprehended them. She granted him only one personal interview.

Was he simply deceived? How could a man who had such a profound insight into men and affairs be outwitted by a woman who knew nothing about politics? If he had not her confidence how could such a capital fact have escaped his notice? He knew the betrayal of his secret, known from the start to at least five persons, would ruin him, and yet how could he reasonably expect that it would not be betrayed? His sudden acquisition of wealth, as evinced by his foolish and lavish expenditures, was sure to set all tongues wagging, and in fact no long time elapsed before Paris was resounding with "the grand treason of Count Mirabeau." What foundation was there for the hopes he cherished? How could he fail to see that the means to be employed were ridiculously inadequate to the end proposed?

If there was originally any doubt in his own mind as to his position, it must have been dispelled by the events of the summer

and autumn of 1790. In September the Necker ministry was dismissed, but the change brought no advantage to Mirabeau. Though bitterly disappointed, he remained faithful to his promise, doing his work, however, in a way which was often displeasing, and sometimes incomprehensible, to his royal patrons. In November he made a speech in the Assembly which the queen regarded as a direct attack upon the government, and she charged him, unjustly, with a violation of his plighted word. That he was making no progress, that on the other hand he was rapidly losing ground, became painfully apparent. The queen in fact had gotten through with him. To her, as she told Mercy, his scheme for saving the monarchy "was utterly absurd from beginning to end." Hitherto she had dallied with it simply to gain time. Now she determined to try her own scheme, and she made her preparations under cover of another scheme, devised by Mirabeau and the minister Montmorin, with her knowledge and assent.

This was a modification and extension of Mirabeau's earlier plan, and was based upon the cooperation of Mercy, Bouillé, and Breteuil, all her devoted adherents. As a preliminary step a great change was to be wrought in public sentiment throughout France. Scores of newspapers, hundreds of writers, were to be subsidized, and hundreds of secret agents were to exert their influence through the clubs. Where the millions of money which would be needed for this purpose were to come from nobody knew; that was a petty detail to which Mirabeau gave no attention. When the French mind had reached the correct stage, the loyal troops under Bouillé and Breteuil were to gather at Fontainebleau, the king was to place himself in their midst, dissolve the National Assembly, and summon the nation to elect a new body which should revise the work of the old one. Thus liberty was to be established through the engines of despotism. The scheme was simply fantastic.

Meanwhile the queen, with the aid of her devoted friend, Count Fersen, was energetically pushing her plan of escape to the frontier, a move which Mirabeau had repeatedly

assured her would be disastrous even if it should be successful. She negotiated with Bouillé and Breteuil, with her brother, the emperor, with Spain, Savoy, and the papacy. She was ready to negotiate with the hereditary enemy, England, and to make such sacrifices as might be necessary in order to bring about some sort of concert between the powers. This, in the opinion of her advisers, was an indispensable condition of success. Delays occurred, owing chiefly to the hesitations of foreign sovereigns, but she kept steadily at her purpose. Mirabeau's death, on the 2d of April in 1791, in no way interfered with her plans, and made no impression upon her; she did not even mention it in her letters. If he had

lived a few weeks longer he would have had the supreme mortification of witnessing the attempt at flight, on the 20th of June, which involved her, and would have involved him, in irretrievable disaster.

A great statesman working heroically, at a monthly wage of six thousand *livres* with other valuable considerations, in behalf of a cause which he knew he was not aiding, which he knew he could not aid, and which, owing to the absurd and impossible conditions imposed upon him, he knew he could only help to ruin, yet continuing the work, and accepting the wage which his vices imperatively demanded, until death balanced the account—that was the penalty which Mirabeau had to pay for the sins of youth.

THIERS.

BY PROFESSOR DANA CARLETON MUNRO, A.M.

OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

LOUIS ADOLPHE THIERS was born at Marseilles on April 16, 1797. It seems as if he could hardly have entered the world under more inauspicious circumstances. The troubles of France had caused the marriage and separation of his parents. His mother was an ardent Royalist, of Levantine extraction, young and beautiful. His father belonged to one of the most influential *bourgeois* families of Marseilles, but in spite of great brilliancy and enterprise failed in all his undertakings. He was a Republican, and in the reaction of Thermidor was compelled to flee for shelter, which he found with the father of his future wife.

He, a widower with several children, was attracted by the wit and beauty of the daughter. She fell in love with him for his misfortunes, his brilliancy, and his plausibility. The parents opposed the match in vain. But within a few weeks the newly married couple quarreled about politics and about the husband's habits. M. Thiers deserted his wife and began a strange career of adventure. He had been a lawyer. He became at different times a

dock porter, manager of a theatrical company, proprietor of gambling houses, merchant, protégé of kings, and circumnavigator of the globe, if his own story can be believed. He was a veritable Micawber, and in his later life he was a decided thorn in the flesh to his great son. His extravagant habits made him the prey of Jewish money-lenders, who compelled the son, then a minister of Louis Philippe, to pay the father's debts in order to avoid scandal. When Thiers was to be married, he made sure that his disreputable parent should not be at the wedding by buying up every seat in every stage-coach plying between his father's home and his own for three weeks in advance.

It is well to dwell at some length on the father, because by his career we can better understand the son. The two were much alike; in fact, the father has been called a caricature of the son. They had the same brilliancy, the same *ensemble* of mediocre qualities, but the father lacked the ability to succeed. Undoubtedly his career was a bitter but salutary lesson for the son.

The misdeeds of the father, who never

supported his family, caused Thiers' youth to be miserable. In early childhood he was happy enough, living in the country with his grandmother, who had adopted him. But when she lost her property he had to go back to his mother to run wild in the streets of Marseilles. He was not sent to school until he was eleven, and then he was the bad boy of the school. Although brilliant in some of his studies, he gave full promise of following in the footsteps of his father.

His character was developed by misfortune. When he left school in 1814 it was to live in a garret with his mother and grandmother. He earned some money by painting miniatures, but his life was wretched enough. In 1816 means were found for him to enter the law school at Aix. Here he became intimate with Mignet, the future historian, who was also connected with him later in his journalism. Here too he had access to excellent collections of paintings, in which he formed his taste, a fact of great advantage to him later at a critical moment.

His great achievement at Aix was in winning a prize offered by the academy for an essay on Vauvenargues. The way in which this prize was secured was characteristic of Thiers. He wrote one essay which would have been successful but for the fact that it was known to be his. The essays were sent anonymously, but Thiers had been unable to refrain from reading his to a literary society. The Royalists on the committee, knowing its authorship, were unwilling to grant it the prize and postponed the decision. Thiers at once wrote another in a different style, which Mignet copied and sent in anonymously. This essay won the prize and the whole town laughed at the clever scheme. The money which he received enabled him to go to Paris.

He had hoped to practice law, but found he had not money enough to be admitted to the Paris bar. He tried unsuccessfully writing, fan-painting, and the duties of a private secretary, but earned barely enough to keep from starving in his garret. Finally

he got a chance to write for the *Constitutionnel*. The editor, to whom he had an introduction, had thought to get rid of him by asking him to write a review of the Salon for that year. He supposed that Thiers must fail in such a task. The artistic taste which had been developed at Aix made this review a literary event. While doing justice to David's great service to French art in the past, Thiers urged emancipation from the fetters with which David had bound the French School, and in contrast called attention to Delacroix, then an unknown painter. This single article did much for French art and also secured the author a position as a journalist. For this he was eminently fitted, as he was clear-headed, went right to the heart of affairs, and always wrote with his audience clearly before his mind. These same qualities were afterward prominent in his speeches.

The next eight years were given up to journalism and to writing the "History of the French Revolution." This work aroused the greatest enthusiasm as it appeared in monthly parts. This was due to its revolt from the judgments usually held up to that time. Opinions about the Revolution were changing and Thiers dared to defend the Convention and the Republicans. This explains the influence and importance at that time of a work which has really little value as history.

He also undertook and planned other literary tasks. But as the government of Charles X. became more arbitrary, Thiers devoted himself to politics and to a strife against the reactionary course of the crown. Finding the shareholders of the *Constitutionnel* too timid to go as far as he wished, he founded a new paper, the *National*, with the avowed purpose of goading the government into some rash act which would be its destruction. He did this not because he desired a republic, but because he thought the actual government unsatisfactory. He believed in a liberal constitutional monarchy. His favorite maxim was "The king reigns, but does not govern." The *National*, by its bold editorials, accomplished

its object. Charles X., irritated by the constant attacks, passed the July Ordinances. These caused the fall of the Bourbon monarchy, and the appointment of Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, as lieutenant-general of the kingdom, and ten days later as king.

No one had done more to bring about "the July monarchy," as the reign of Louis Philippe was then called, than Thiers. He immediately became a member of the government. At first he was in a subordinate position that he might study his new duties; then he became a minister, and finally on two occasions prime minister, but each time he held this office for only a few months. He was always consistent in wanting a firm, liberal, constitutional government. This France seemed to have for the first ten years of Louis Philippe's reign, and accordingly Thiers supported the king, much to the chagrin of the ardent Republicans who had hoped to find in him a leader.

His position was difficult, as he lacked the confidence not only of the Republicans but also of the Conservatives. The leader of the latter party was Guizot, the historian, his great rival. The difficulties in his way led Thiers to try some expedients, of which the morality was doubtful to say the least, and which secured for him the reputation of a tricky politician.

In 1840, as prime minister, he adopted a strong war policy about Egypt, opposing the wishes of Lord Palmerston and the English cabinet. For a time it looked as if Thiers would plunge France into war. But Louis Philippe was anxious for an English marriage alliance and dismissed his bellicose minister, after the latter had been in office for only a few months. From this time Thiers was a member of the opposition. As he was out of office, he employed his time in writing his "History of the Consulate and the Empire," a work very greatly superior to his earlier production, but far from impartial, not always honest, and having the fault of too great diffuseness. It is in twenty volumes and occupied much of his time for over fifteen years.

In the meantime the July monarchy was tending toward reactionary principles. This led to "reform banquets" and to the Revolution of 1848. Thiers had no active share in the revolution, but he had no hostility to it. He did not believe in a republic, but became a member of the Constitutional Assembly and voted with the party of order for Louis Napoleon. As the latter showed his purpose of founding an empire, Thiers passed into the opposition, and was exiled in 1851. The next year, when the government of Napoleon III. was firmly established, he was allowed to return, but was not active in politics for some time.

Ten years later he was again elected to the legislative body. This was the period in which the empire was growing weak and unpopular. The war with Germany was looming on the horizon. By his histories and his previous policy Thiers had done much to foster the war spirit, but he now opposed the war. He did this not from principle, but because he thought the war inopportune and because it furnished him the means of attacking the government.

Consequently when the war proved disastrous he was in a most favorable position for advancement. He was offered a seat in the provisional government, which he declined. But he voluntarily undertook missions to London, St. Petersburg, Venice, and Florence, to plead for France. In these missions he had little direct success, but he aroused sympathy in the foreign governments and became very prominent in the eyes of his countrymen.

When the Bordeaux Assembly was elected to treat for peace with Germany, Thiers was returned as a deputy by twenty-eight out of the eighty-three departments of France. By this he was clearly designated as the head of the new government, or chief of the executive, as his position was called. For over forty years he had been an influential factor in French politics. Thirty years before he had been prime minister. Now, at seventy-four, he was chosen to guide the state in the darkest hours France has ever known. Furthermore the Assembly was composed of so many discordant factions that he had to use

the utmost address in order to command a majority of votes for his measures. But for over two years he might have said with truth, "L'état, c'est moi," and until his herculean labors had been completed his enemies dared not remove him.

The first task before him was to make peace with Germany. The hard conditions demanded by the victors are familiar. But few know how Thiers, day after day, pleaded with Bismarck for France, which was so terribly humiliated, had suffered so much, but was still dangerous if pressed too hard. Many Frenchmen demanded the strife *à outrance*—to the bitter end. Thiers felt that peace was absolutely necessary, and in tears, but with dignity, he demanded some mercy. Bismarck was moved, and finally the indemnity was reduced and Belfort was saved to France. It was little enough, but no other Frenchman could have secured as much. The importance of Belfort lay in its geographical position, commanding the pass by which in all ages invaders had entered France from Germany. The Assembly ratified the peace, although one sixth of the members voted against it, preferring war *à outrance*, in which France would be destroyed but not conquered.

The preliminaries of peace were hardly signed when Thiers was called to confront a new danger, the rebellion of the Commune at Paris. This movement had been in preparation for a long time. Now the leaders did not hesitate to precipitate it on France in the time of her greatest danger. Without any army on which he could rely, without funds, and with the Germans threatening to begin the war again on account of the action of Paris, Thiers was compelled to fight the Commune. For over two months victory hung in the balance. In these days Thiers was everything, did everything. The Assembly was only a hindrance to him. He reformed the army—one hundred and seventeen of the hundred and twenty French regiments had been made prisoners at Sedan or Metz—regulated the finances, received deputations from the insurgents, argued down opposition in the Assembly, and persuaded the Germans to remain inactive.

When the contest with the Commune was ended and Paris taken, Thiers turned his attention to raising the money necessary for the indemnity and for the support of the army of occupation. Eight billions of francs in all had to be raised, and it was accomplished in two years. What is more strange, it was done without any financial crisis either in France or elsewhere in Europe. Only a financier can appreciate the difficulties attending the transfer of such enormous sums from one country to another in such a short time. The indemnity was paid two years before it was due, and France was freed from occupation by a foreign army. For this magnificent achievement Thiers well deserved the title of "liberator of the territory."

During these two years the majority in the Assembly had been slowly withdrawing its support from Thiers. It was composed of Monarchists, who began to distrust him on account of his belief in the republic, which had been proclaimed and of which he was president. No one of the three sections of the Monarchical party was strong enough to impose its own candidate on the other two, but all agreed in their dislike of a republic and in considering the present government only a temporary expedient. Thiers, who had always been a Monarchist, had come to believe in the possibility of a republic as the safest form of government. He was working quietly, but effectively, to strengthen the existing government.

The Monarchist majority were plotting to overthrow him, but did not dare to do so until the negotiations with Germany were over. He knew his power and threatened several times to resign unless his measures were voted. The Assembly always yielded to the pressure, but was clearly biding its time. As soon as the final treaty with Germany for the evacuation of France was signed, the majority in the Assembly passed a vote of lack of confidence, and Thiers resigned. He felt bitterly the ingratitude and "compared himself to a pilot engaged to bring a shattered hulk safely into port in the face of a raging and dangerous sea, with a jealous captain and a mutinous crew, who

threw him overboard the moment he had refitted the ship."

Until his death in 1877 Thiers was the leader of the Republican party in France. In fact he more than any one else was instrumental in making the republic a success. When he resigned he already had the majority of his countrymen at his back, and if he could have appealed to them he might have remained president. Since then the republic has gained in strength, and the services of Thiers are better understood.

It is manifestly unfair to judge Thiers from any one standpoint. Like so many able statesmen he combined literature and politics. Possibly he was prouder of his title as a member of the French Academy, "the Immortals," than of his position of president of the republic. Yet of his writings his histories are the best known and we have already spoken of their faults. Although very popular in their time, they have been harshly and justly criticised and will sink in estimation as they grow in age. As a journalist he was instrumental in overthrowing a government, but has left no editorials of lasting merit. Judged wholly by his statesmanship, his policy was not always wise or above reproach. Even if he was not "a tricky politician," as he has been called, he was certainly in his earlier career not a trustworthy and safe guide.

His oratory was his most effective weapon.

He was a short, homely man, with a thin, nasal, quavering voice, "half way between a squeak and a scream." He appeared insignificant, and the huge goggles which he wore made him look ridiculous. But no one thought of his appearance when he began to speak; then all listened and admired or envied. His enemies feared his oratory so much that they attempted to prevent him from speaking at all, and did succeed in stopping him from taking part in debates. Yet his oratory owed its success not to eloquence, or the ordinary arts of speakers, as much as to its clear logic and the common sense which was apparent in every word. He was eloquent on some occasions, but his most effective speeches were chatty and anecdotic in manner.

In fact, if judged from any one standpoint, it is easy to depreciate the man to whom the French Republic to-day owes her greatest debt of gratitude. Bismarck was right when he said, "Talk on, talk on, I beseech you; it is delightful to listen to one so essentially civilized." It was this, his high development along so many lines, that fitted him for his task. If instead of having an *ensemble* of mediocre qualities, guided by common sense, he had been great in one, he might not have been fitted to guide France after her shipwreck, and to make her again one of the great powers of Europe—strong and invincible.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[June 6.]

He that dwelleth in the secret place of the Most High shall abide under the shadow of the Almighty, *et seq.*—*Ps. xci. 1-10.*

THIS psalm breathes throughout a lofty confidence, of a kind which is scarcely so fully or completely expressed elsewhere. The psalmist finds a refuge in God, from which he can look out calmly and undismayed, not upon the rage of his enemies, or upon the snares and temptations that beset the righteous, but upon some destructive

pestilence which, with invisible steps, stalks through the land, and silently smites its victims by night and by day. While the hearts of others are sinking with a nameless terror, he fears no evil, and is confident that the unseen foe will never come near his dwelling. Not only so, but his faith takes a loftier flight, assumes a more exultant attitude, as he realizes the perfection of his safety, and he rejoices in an assured immunity from every stumbling-block that may lie in his path, from the beasts of prey that may

spring upon him from unsuspected coverts, and indeed from every possible source of peril.

Rarely, if anywhere, has faith made so complete a shield of God, or planted itself so firmly within the circle of his defense. No wonder we find this psalm called in the Talmud a "Song of Accidents," that is, a talisman or prophylactic in times of danger. And no wonder the ancient church used it as its "Invocavit," to rally and encourage the hearts of the faithful in troublous and stormy times.

The question is, How are *we* to understand it? Is it true? Can a man, because he is a Christian, and fears God, count upon such immunity as is here described? Does he lead a sort of charmed life, clothed with impenetrable armor, which no shaft of pestilence can pierce, so that while thousands or tens of thousands may fall at his right hand he shall never be touched? We know that is not so. Facts contradict the supposition in the most emphatic and unceremonious way. Nothing is more striking than the impartiality of some epidemics.

If there is an occasional expression of surprise that the rich who can avail themselves of the resources of science are cut down, as well as the poor who cannot, no one even pretends to be surprised that Christians suffer as well as other people. Must we, then, quietly but regretfully let the psalm go, as a beautiful but utterly extravagant assertion of faith, a song which might have been sung in the childhood of the world, but which later experience has shown to be hopelessly at variance with the realities of life? Or is there any way in which we can interpret it, so as to use it with intelligence and profit to ourselves? May faith not rise on as steady a wing, and still utter notes as triumphantly careless and void of fear? Let us see what answer we can give to such questions as these.

Observe, first, that the difficulty we feel in connection with the psalm is not that it assumes a special providence, as we call it. This is taught everywhere in Scripture. It is difficult, indeed, to see how there can be any providence at all if it does not conde-

scend to particulars, and take the individual, as well as the community or the race, into account. God's providence became distinctly special when he selected first a family and then a nation, to fulfil a purpose peculiar to itself, and when in consequence of this he entered into relations with them of a corresponding character, dictating the laws which were to govern their lives, and leading them along the appointed pathway of their history. It became still more special in the lives of those who were used as the chief instruments in guiding the people toward their divinely determined goal—in the judges, prophets, and kings who were raised up from time to time to be the exponents or executors of the divine will. They were God's delegates or vicegerents, through whom he conveyed certain benefits to the rest of the community, or accomplished certain results on their behalf. But, as a rule, God reveals himself in the Old Testament as the God of Israel. It was Israel's future and the steps which led to it that were the objects of his solicitude. And the individual came under consideration only as belonging to the covenant people, or contributing to the advancement of their interests, while he shared, in so far as he was faithful, the blessings which were its peculiar and distinguishing portion.

[June 13.]

In the New Testament the doctrine of a special providence becomes even more clear, detaching itself from its temporary connection with a particular race, and entering into even closer relations with all who know and are obedient to the divine will. Religion is no longer embodied in a national history; it is an individual possession. "If thou," whoever thou art, "shalt confess with thy mouth the Lord Jesus, and shalt believe in thine heart that God hath raised him from the dead, thou shalt be saved." Christ is pledged to be with two or three who are met together in his name, anywhere and at any time. His promises and those of the apostles are rarely to the church as a corporate society, but almost always to Christians as such. Moreover, the divine providence is not

confined to spiritual things. It extends to the food we eat and to the raiment with which we are clothed. We are told expressly that the very hairs of our heads are all numbered, and that if the sparrows are the objects of our heavenly Father's care, much more so is all that belongs to the welfare of his children.

In both Testaments, then, we see that a special providence is distinctly taught, though with a characteristic difference. In the Old Testament its primary concern is with Israel as a people, and with the individual only in a subordinate and secondary degree. In the New Testament the individual is more distinctly and definitely an object of divine regard. He, and the community of which he forms a part, are equally essential to one another, and that because the church is not moved and governed from without, but from within; and such a government is impossible except by the indwelling of the Spirit of God in the heart of each individual believer.

The difficulty which meets us here, then, is not that of a special providence, but of the manner in which it is said to act. And, to understand this, we require to distinguish more sharply between the teaching of the Old Testament and that of the New.

In the Old Testament the divine providence was specially concerned in so guiding and controlling the history of Israel that in it as a nation the kingdom of God, or of the Messiah, should be realized. To this the great prerequisite was, of course, the coming of the Messiah himself, whose advent was eagerly expected, as inaugurating the fulfilment of the glorious promises of the past. His kingdom was to be heavenly in character, but to be located upon earth. He was to judge the world with righteousness, and the poor with judgment. His reign was to be an era of peace and prosperity which should know no end. Those who were to be more immediately about him, and to occupy the chief places of honor and authority, were to be his own people, to whom in a special sense he belonged. And around them, in ever widening and more distant circles, were to be the other inhabitants of earth, all under the sway of the same benignant scepter. Jeru-

salem was to be the seat of his government, and in those happy days the concourse of all peoples should be to the mountain of the Lord's house. What we call the future life was vaguely conceived, and it is doubtful if its relation to the kingdom of the Messiah was at all clearly defined. In later days the doctrine of the resurrection gradually asserted for itself a place in the popular creed. It was the necessary complement to truths which it was felt could not be harmonized, or held in their integrity, without it. Those who had passed away before the glorious reign had begun were to be raised up at its commencement, though the question whether death should then cease to be seems not to have been distinctly raised, or at least to have received an unambiguous answer.

[June 20.]

HERE, then, was the goal, as it presented itself to the faith of the Old Testament, to which God was leading the covenant people. But as regards individuals, what did his guidance contemplate for them? What was its province or purpose so far as they were concerned? It was partly shown, as we have already observed, in the case of certain select personalities, in preparing them to be the special organs of the divine will, and in using them as such. But apart from this, and generally speaking, it was conceived as operating so as to prolong the lives of the faithful, and thus extend their prospect of seeing and welcoming the Messiah. As subordinate and accessory blessings it was believed to secure their material prosperity, and freedom from those evils which lie upon the lot of the wicked. If this seems to assign to it a very modest and limited rôle, it is difficult to see how it could have been otherwise. It is in keeping with what was understood of the national destiny, which of necessity determined its scope. That destiny was only gradually and at the best dimly revealed.

If it is almost impossible to reduce it to a consistent presentation, or to harmonize all its characteristics, so as to combine them into one well-arranged and intelligible picture, it is because revelation was historical

and progressive, and came in divers portions and in divers manners. The truth had to accomodate itself to national idiosyncrasies, and to struggle into light through the medium of a comparatively immature spiritual intelligence. It could only clothe itself in the vesture of the time. It was conditioned by the life and institutions of those to whom it came. Poured into such a mold, it could not but take and retain its impress. The kingdom of God that was to be could only be conceived as a development of that kingdom as it then was. For it was impossible that the main lines of prophecy should proceed on the assumption that Israel should prove false to its vocation and reject its Messiah. That would have involved the paralysis and final destruction of faith. For it would have appeared equivalent to a dissolution of the divine kingdom altogether, and the future of Israel would have vanished, its *raison d'être* would have ceased to exist.

So much for the Old Testament. In the New Testament the point of view is entirely different. Religion is not embodied in a national history, nor is the kingdom of God an earthly kingdom, as even the disciples believed it would be up to the day of Pentecost. Its essential characteristics are spiritual—righteousness, peace, and joy in the Holy Ghost. Its seat is no longer the earthly Jerusalem, for the time has come of which Jesus spake to the woman of Samaria, when neither on Gerizim nor Mount Zion should men worship the Father. It has no central shrine which possesses a monopoly of the divine presence, but the temple of God is the hearts of his people. "Know ye not," writes St. Paul to the Corinthians, "that ye are the temple of God, and that the Spirit of God dwelleth in you?" The Jew enjoys no preeminence among its citizens, for "in Christ Jesus there is neither circumcision nor uncircumcision." His long program of privilege was exhausted when to him first the Gospel was preached. Now and henceforth there is no difference. The blessings which the kingdom provides are not temporal, nor in any wise dependent upon time or place. They are inward and spiritual.

[June 27.]

JESUS, in speaking of the calamities of the last times, described them as so terrible as almost to involve the destruction of the elect; and that these should escape was to be due, not to any special interposition removing them from danger, but to the shortening of the calamities themselves. As they had been exposed to a common risk, so they were to be saved by a common respite. But does a Christian, then, derive no advantage from his Christianity in such visitations? If they fall upon him with as much severity as upon the godless and profane, what does his Christianity profit him? Is it not a useless, and, so far as they are concerned, a superfluous possession? By no means. For he has placed himself under God's care, who spared not his own Son, but delivered him up for us all, and who cannot allow his servant to suffer, simply because he will not take the trouble to save him, or grudges what the effort might cost. Moreover, he is persuaded that God is acquainted with every particular connected with his trial, the very hairs of his head being all numbered, and that if he chose he could secure his absolute safety.

And what reconciles him to the fact that God does not choose? What, but the conviction that there is thus to come to him a larger blessing than he would otherwise receive? The character of the blessing he may not at the time be able to discern, for we are often blind to some of our deepest needs, and ignorant of the lessons we require most to learn. But he is sure his faith will be justified by the result, and that he will emerge from the ordeal a humbler, less worldly-minded man, with a character more chastened and trained to spiritual uses. In other words, his sufferings will issue, as those of Jesus himself did, in a more perfect and complete obedience. Even should the trial end in death, death does not undo the effects produced upon character. And what is death to the man whose trust is centered upon Christ? Its nature is changed, for its sting has been extracted. "The sting of death is sin, and the strength of sin is the law. But thanks

be to God, which giveth us the victory through Jesus Christ our Lord." And if the sting of death is removed, what is it that remains? The remainder is gain—a release from all that has been painful and burdensome; an introduction to all that is essential to perfect our character and consummate our bliss. In short, the faith of Christ makes an end of all ills. For nothing that befalls a Christian can be so described. The very afflictions, that are not joyous but grievous, bring forth the fruits of righteousness. All things work together for good to them who love God, who are the called according to his purpose.

And how, then, are we to sing this Ninety-first Psalm? Not, indeed, precisely as the Old Testament church was wont to use it, though that surely does not imply that we are any poorer, or less worthily provided for than they. It only implies that we are provided for differently. And the difference is immeasurably to our advantage. The blessing which they received from the favor of God was a negative one—that no plague should come near their dwelling. The blessing which we enjoy is a positive one—that, if it does come, it shall be a minister of God for good. Grace hath so much more abounded toward us and produced so much stronger a faith, that what sometimes staggered Old Testament saints, viz., that God's

rod lay upon the lot of the righteous, only leads to a livelier hope, a clearer vision, a will and character wrought into a more perfect meekness and resignation to the will that orders all things best. The rod is no longer the instrument of divine displeasure, but the means by which miracles of transformation are produced. It is wielded exclusively for our profit.

When we sing this psalm, therefore, we make it the utterance of a more enlightened faith. It is the expression of a firm and joyful confidence that God has and will have us so securely in his keeping that nothing shall truly hurt us, or prove a messenger of evil. "He will give his angels charge concerning us, to keep us in all our ways." "For are they not ministering spirits, sent forth to minister to them who shall be heirs of salvation?" And the perils that seem most terrible, the foes that are ready to devour us, even over these he will make us more than conquerors. "We shall tread upon the lion and adder: the young lion and the dragon shall we trample under foot." "The trial of our faith, being much more precious than of gold that perisheth, though it be tried with fire, shall be found unto praise and honor and glory at the appearing of Jesus Christ."—*Rev. Charles Moinet, M. A., St. John's Presbyterian Church, Kensington, England.*

FRANCE IN THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

BY JAMES ALBERT WOODBURN, PH.D.

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PROFESSOR TURNER has lately described for the readers of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* "The Rise and Fall of New France." As his story shows, the fall of French power in America was complete by the year 1763—a year which has been called one of the turning-points in the history of the world, and which may be taken as the starting-point in the story of the American Revolution. By the treaty of Paris, 1763, France was humiliated. She relinquished her hope of empire in India, she lost dis-

astrously in her merchant and military marine, and she retired from the continent of North America. At the opening of the eighteenth century France's hope of commanding an empire in the Mississippi Valley was bright indeed. As Victor Duruy, the great French historian, says, France then "held North America by its two ends—by the mouths of its two great rivers." She also had rich possessions in the West Indies. But in 1763 all was changed. By the treaty of that year France relinquished Canada to

England and Louisiana to Spain, and French power in America was at an end.

The attitude of France toward the revolt of the American colonies and the dismemberment of the British Empire comes logically in order in studying the influence of France on the western world. We may be sure that France did not surrender her possessions in America without some lingering jealousy and resentment toward the great rival who had caused her overthrow. French statesmen looked forward with expectation to our colonial quarrel. The language of Choiseul, the French minister, after the treaty of 1763, is familiar. Speaking of the colonies and their relation to England he is reported to have said: "They stand no longer in need of her protection. She will call on them to contribute toward the burdens which they have helped to bring on her, and they will answer by throwing off all dependence." This notable prophecy was probably not uttered until after the colonial controversy with the mother country had begun, but Choiseul's hope was not an exceptional one among the statesmen of France. Montesquieu had said, before the middle of the century, that England would be the first nation deserted by her colonies.

Turgot, the great economist and statesman of France, looked upon the English colonies as growing fruit. "When they are ripe they will drop from the stem," he said. The conduct of France during the American Revolution goes to show that whether or not she believed that the English colonial fruit was ripe, she was ready to help on in the process of separation from the mother stem. Whatever embarrassed her rival was supposed to be advantageous to France, and French statesmen candidly admitted that in her attitude of friendliness toward American independence France was not entirely disinterested. They held it to be to the interest of France that the power of England should be diminished by the loss of her American colonies.

There were several reasons why it was to the interest of France to promote the independence of America. French humiliation for the loss of Canada would be in a measure

avenged. A blow would be struck at the maritime supremacy of Great Britain, and France could thus obtain a share in the American commerce from which she was excluded by the English Navigation Acts and by the old colonial system. Also the French West Indies would be safer with the harbors of a neighboring continent in the hands of a friendly neutral. These considerations are urged by Mr. Lecky, the great historian of eighteenth century England, in accounting for the attitude of the French statesmen toward the American contest. Whether France hoped to regain her power in America, or to use the independent colonies as an ally in subsequent international contests, are matters only of curious speculation. Whatever may have been her motive, it is certain that without her aid, so far as human judgment can determine, our struggle for independence would have been much more discouraging, if not entirely hopeless.

The American colonists thought of French assistance as early as 1775. Congress formed a secret committee to correspond with friends in Europe, and early in 1776 Silas Deane, a native of Connecticut and a graduate of Yale, was selected as our agent in France. Deane went to France by way of Bermuda, under the guise of a merchant of that island, and, following his instructions, he applied to Vergennes, the French minister, for clothing and arms for twenty-five thousand men and for ammunition and field-pieces. Deane was also to find out whether, if the colonists should declare themselves independent, France would be disposed to recognize them. While the French ministers were ready to encourage the revolt of the colonies by secret gifts of money, they would not commit the power of France to the public policy of aiding our cause until we had declared our independence and given some guarantee of being able to maintain it. The recognition of our independence involved the risk of war with England. This risk France was not willing to take while there was a probability that the colonies would be conciliated to the mother country by constitutional concessions, and thus be converted into loyal

subjects of England and enemies of France. The Declaration of Independence and French aid were very closely connected. France wished to know that the Rubicon had been crossed and that there was no turning back.

Some military success and a promise of victory on the part of America seemed also essential to bring France openly and fully to our aid. France, it is true, gave us secret aid during 1776-77, as we have said. Deane negotiated loans and gifts through Beaumarchais, a secret agent of Vergennes, ostensibly as in a commercial transaction. Three vessels loaded with goods—thirty thousand stands of arms, thirty thousand suits of clothes, two hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, and other quantities of military stores—with over three million *livres* in money came from France to America in this way. Lecky says that Vergennes thus subsidized our revolt, and that his letter to the king proposing this secret policy was "more like the letter of a conspirator than of a minister of a great nation."

It was the battle of Saratoga and the surrender of Burgoyne which fixed the public policy of France toward America. With this military success of the Americans a new aspect was put on the face of affairs. The French interpreted the tidings of Saratoga as "the knell of British dominion in America and of English greatness in the world." When the news arrived in France Vergennes informed our commissioners—Adams and Lee had joined Deane—that the king had determined to acknowledge our independence and to enter into a treaty of amity and alliance. The only condition France wished to impose was that the Americans should make no peace relinquishing their independence and returning to obedience. On February 6, 1778, the French-American alliance was consummated, an event of the highest moment in the American Revolution. On that day two treaties were made between France and America.

The first was a treaty of amity and commerce. It provided for a firm and inviolable peace. Each nation should treat the other as well as it treated the most favored

nation; either might deal with the enemies of the other; it was agreed that "free ships should make free goods"; that is, if the ship were a neutral ship, free from the restraints of a current war, the goods which it carried were not subject to capture by a belligerent; the vessels of war and privateers of either party might bring prizes into the ports of the other, which privilege was to be denied to the ships of the enemies of either. This favorable commercial treaty was of great benefit to us at the time. It recognized our commercial independence and gave us access to French ports on that footing.

But in 1793 this French treaty rose to trouble us. Genet, the French minister to the United States, interpreted it, and proceeded to carry it out, in such a way as would have made it impossible for Washington to have preserved an attitude of neutrality in the pending war between France and England. We took the commercial treaty of 1778 to apply to a defensive war, such as we were then engaged in with England, but not as applying to any offensive war which France might subsequently declare.

The second treaty with France, in 1778, was one of friendship and alliance. Having made a treaty of amity and commerce the two countries thought it necessary and wise to consider how they might help one another in future. Great Britain might resent French interference in America and declare war on France. In that case France and America should stand together. It was therefore agreed, if war should break out between France and Great Britain during the continuance of our struggle, that France and America should make it a common cause and aid each other mutually with their good offices, their counsels, and their forces, as good and faithful allies were wont to do. The end of this alliance was to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty, and independence of the United States, politically and commercially. It was especially stipulated that neither of the two parties should conclude either truce or peace with Great Britain without the formal consent of the other; and the two countries mutually engaged not to lay down their arms until the

independence of the United States was assured.

When we remember that at this time France was one of the most powerful nations of Europe, we are led to some appreciation of the importance of this alliance to the struggling colonies. There is no doubt that France was zealous and powerful in the promotion of our independence. She made our cause her own. Her motives have been questioned, and it is no doubt true that it was our independence, not our liberties, which she was anxious to promote. She went into the war against England on our side not that she loved the colonies and wished to promote their interest, but that she opposed England and wished to dismember her empire. It is known that in the negotiations closing the War of the Revolution Vergennes sought to confine our western boundaries to the Alleghanies. For these reasons it has been said that, while we had a right to take advantage of French aid, we were under no obligations of national gratitude, and that there was an estoppel put upon that plea on the part of France when in 1793 she sought our aid and continued alliance against England.

The influence of the French alliance, or the fear of it, may be seen in that immediately there was proposed a change of policy toward the colonies on the part of Great Britain. Early in 1778, after the French treaties were signed but before they were announced, Lord North brought into Parliament his famous proposals of conciliation with the colonies. He was too late. Though his proposals could not affect the course of events, it is interesting to notice the liberality of his proposals. The government of George III. now stood ready to concede all that America had ever asked. The Massachusetts Act and the tea duty were unconditionally repealed. Parliament would promise to impose no taxes upon the colonies for the sake of revenue, though the ancient right was to be retained of imposing duties for the regulation of commerce—the old external taxes, the fairness of which America had always conceded; but all commercial duties were to be ap-

plied to public purposes in the colonies themselves. Commissioners were to be sent out to America empowered to negotiate a peace, to declare a cessation of hostilities, to grant pardons, and to suspend the operations of all acts of Parliament relating to the colonies passed since 1763.

Three years earlier America would have asked no more. But now we distrusted the ministers who had seemed such inveterate enemies of the colonies, though they came bearing such liberal gifts; and the final decisive obstacle to the conciliation of North was found in the French alliance. We had ultimately committed ourselves to France and to independence. When North's project of conciliation was rejected by the colonies and the French alliance was announced in England, the old English pride against France was aroused and there was a tendency toward a closer union of parties and a determination to suppress the colonial revolt at all hazards. Chatham, the great friend of the colonies and the most powerful statesman in Europe, deserted our cause. He struggled from a sick bed to raise his voice, as he expressed it, "against the dismemberment of this most ancient and most noble monarchy." Thus, we see, the French alliance served to encourage us upon the one side, while it made Great Britain more determined upon the other, and the war for our coercion went on.

In the progress of this war how did France abide by the obligation of her treaties? Did she heartily enlist in the war until our independence was achieved? The limits of this article will admit of but brief descriptions of her services to our cause, services political, financial, military, and naval. These services were of such an important character that the average historical judgment considers it reasonable to say that they were essential to the achievement of our independence. Mr. Lecky, giving the judgment of an Englishman, says that it was evident in 1780 that the revolutionary movement depended almost entirely upon the assistance of France. He sustains his judgment by the frank admission of Washington that it was impossible, at

least under existing circumstances, to accomplish, without it, either of the two great objects of the war; i. e., the capture of New York and the expulsion of England from the Southern States. And Rochambeau, who was in constant communication with Washington, speaking of this late period of the war, states that the "American general feared, and not without foundation, considering the absolute discredit of the finances of Congress, that the struggles of this campaign would be the last efforts of expiring patriotism."

But I have asked, What substantial aid in these troublous times did France render? The story of her naval and military expeditions in aid of the Americans is a familiar one. In July, 1780, a French fleet and army arrived in Newport. There were seven ships of the line, besides frigates and transports, and six thousand men under Rochambeau. The French government sent out instructions, generously placing their own troops under the command of Washington and ordering that, when the French and American armies were united, American officers were to command French officers of equal rank.

Early in 1781 Admiral De Grasse sailed for America with twenty-five ships of the line, six thousand soldiers, and a convoy of over two hundred ships. He made some conquests against England in the West Indies, but his objective point was the waters of America. In August, 1781, he arrived in the Chesapeake with the force destined to bring the American war to a close.

Meanwhile financial distress was burdening America. Laurens was sent to France for a new loan. Washington said that without another loan the remnants of his army could not be kept together for the campaign. Vergennes complained of the lack of coercive power in Congress in raising revenue, and he seemed reluctant and skeptical. But through the influence of Lafayette and the representations of Franklin, now our influential ambassador at the court of Versailles, a generous loan was secured to enable the Americans to con-

tinue the war. Besides a loan of four million *livres* to secure claims already assumed by Franklin, the French king gave six million *livres* as a free gift, and also agreed to guarantee in Holland an American loan of ten thousand more.

Under these encouragements the Americans renewed their endeavors. With De Grasse's fleet combined with the squadron already in America the English naval forces in American waters were outclassed. De Grasse blocked up the York River and cut off Cornwallis from communication by sea. The French admiral landed French soldiers, reenforcing the army of Lafayette. The Rhode Island fleet combined with De Grasse, Washington and Rochambeau united their land forces and moved southward to join Lafayette. Cornwallis was hemmed in, and Yorktown was the inevitable result.

In this account of the allied struggle for American independence I have emphasized the French side of the story, as my subject required me to do. It would be entirely too dogmatic to assert that we could not have achieved our independence without French assistance. Three and a half millions of people, united in defense of their liberties, might have "proved invincible against any force" which their enemies might have sent against them. It is profitless to speculate on what might have been. But the consensus of opinion is, in considering this great historic struggle, that in our fight for independence we could not have fought successfully independent of France. At least no one has pointed out by what other means success could have been reasonably expected.

The story of France in the American Revolution would not be complete without a recognition of individual services. Many a young French officer, moved by love of adventure or by a sentimental desire to fight for the liberty of America, applied to Deane for enlistment in the American cause. The services of De Grasse and Rochambeau have been mentioned. Count d'Estaing cooperated with De Grasse in the command of the French fleet. Baron De

Kalb was a German, but he came to America in 1768 as a secret agent of Choiseul, and when the war broke out he hastened to place his sword at the disposal of the Americans.

But preeminent among the names of all the foreigners who assisted in the achievement of our independence is the name of the Marquis de Lafayette. The story of his services in America reveals a life of strangely unselfish devotion. It was mainly his personal efforts and personal influence which caused the army of Rochambeau and the fleet of De Grasse to be sent to Amer-

ica. He was of the greatest assistance to Franklin in negotiating the last French loan. He shared with Washington and Rochambeau the honors of the campaign at Yorktown. Throughout the struggle he was unceasing in his activities in the American cause. He was a constant friend and counsellor of Washington, and his devoted sacrifices for a country not his own won the love and gratitude of the American people. Whatever may be said of Lafayette's later failures in France, no one can doubt the triumphs of his devotion to America.

THE DIRECTORY, THE CONSULATE, AND THE EMPIRE.

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NOTHING is more absurd than the attempt to divide off periods of history into definite sections, each of which is supposed to have no connection with its fellows. One of the great truths always insisted upon by modern teachers is that history is continuous and that each epoch blends insensibly with its successor. It is convenient, perhaps, to speak of the French Revolution, the Directory, the Consulate, and the First Empire, but care should be taken that this convenience does not imply a sharp separation between these different periods. Furthermore it is right, at the very outset of this article, to insist upon the continuity of the period to be considered with that known as the French Revolution, which was dealt with in a previous number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* (December, 1896).

The chief point upon which weight was laid in the article just alluded to was the influence of the interference of foreign nations upon the working out in France of her own destiny. It was shown that the particular development of characteristic manifestations of the French Revolution, notably the Reign of Terror, was due to the attempt of European nations to interfere in purely French matters. But France had her revenge. Not only did she with un-

rivalled efforts defeat Europe in arms, but in her turn she began, by means of the patriot armies which had repulsed the foreign invaders, to interfere in the internal affairs of her former foes and after a career of conquest to change the face of Europe. Then Europe reacted upon France. The soldier who had absorbed the French Revolution menaced the freedom and the independence of other countries. The peoples of Europe rose against him. The Spaniards and the Germans in particular became once more conscious of their ancient nationalities; Napoleon was overthrown and a new era opened in European history, in which France ceased to be the central factor in European affairs and the doctrine of the concert of the great powers came into existence to represent in the nineteenth century what the doctrine of the balance of power had represented in the eighteenth.

It will be seen, then, that whereas the leading characteristic of the period from 1789 to 1795 is the Revolution in France, acted upon by the other nations of Europe, the chief point to be borne in mind from 1795 to 1814 is the reaction of France upon Europe, culminating with the overthrow of Napoleon and the reduction of the limits of the direct government of the French nation to the area comprised at the time of the

commencement of the Revolution in 1789.

The year 1795 marks the turning point; in that year certain of the powers of Europe, notably Prussia and Spain, made peace with the French Republic. The Thermidorians had abandoned the revolutionary propaganda which certain enthusiasts had started for the extension of Republican principles, and the logical result of this change of policy was the possibility of peace, a possibility which became a reality as soon as some of the enemies of France perceived that they had interests of their own which did not demand any further struggle with the invincible Republicans.

The treaties of 1795 left France at war only with Austria, with the southern states of the Holy Roman Empire, with England, and with the kingdom of Sardinia. To meet these powers France possessed a mighty military force. The energetic government of the Committee of Public Safety had brought under arms the flower of the nation; the patriot soldiers who had hurried to the front in the moment of danger had become experienced in war, and the national excitement had brought to the front young generals to whom nothing was impossible. When, therefore, the National Convention ceased its sessions in October, 1795, and the government of the Thermidorian Committee of Public Safety gave way to the government of the Directory, the course of future foreign policy was already marked out.

It was true that in the place of arbitrary and unconstitutional control there was established by the constitution of the Year III. a definite system of government in which the departments of the executive and the legislative were carefully defined and in which the authors fondly hoped the permanent salvation of France might be found. The Directors who formed the executive under this constitution inherited with regard to foreign affairs the policy of their predecessors, the Thermidorian Committee of Public Safety. The Thermidorians had resolved, when the first steps were taken toward abandoning the revolutionary propaganda, that the nations of Europe might

indeed have peace with France but that they must compensate France for what she had been forced to suffer at the hands of the invaders by recognizing what Frenchmen had regarded since the days of Richelieu as the natural limits of France; namely, the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees. This meant the cession to France of the Austrian Netherlands, now known as Belgium, of the German-speaking provinces that stretched along the left bank of the Rhine between Belgium and Alsace, and of the province of Savoy.

It was for this territorial increase of France that the Directors, like the Thermidorians, determined to fight. Prussia had recognized the principle in a secret article in the treaty of 1795, but it was a cardinal principle of English policy that Belgium, including as it did the great port of Antwerp, should never belong to France, and Austria had the chief interest in the maintenance within the Holy Roman Empire of those German provinces upon the left bank of the Rhine, whose chief rulers had ever been supporters of the House of Hapsburg. The Thermidorians showed their sincerity by refusing to annex Holland, which they had conquered and which was organized as the Batavian Republic, and the Directors were equally consistent when the successes of Napoleon Bonaparte in Italy gave them the task of reorganizing governments in that quarter. It was not until the government of the Directory had given way to the government of the Consulate that this principle was forgotten and that France began to annex districts and countries beyond what she had formerly held to be her natural limits.

It so happened that, within a few months of the installation of the first Directors in office, a soldier of genius was placed at the head of the most important of the French armies. The career of Napoleon Bonaparte as an actor upon the stage of European affairs begins with his celebrated campaign of 1796 in Italy. Of this marvelous series of operations it is enough to note that Sardinia was at once brought to terms and that in October, 1797, Austria was forced

by the treaty of Campo Formio to recognize the Rhine as the eastern limit of France. There remained but England.

General Bonaparte, disliking the task suggested to him of invading the island itself, undertook, to the relief of the Directors, who feared so famous a soldier, to strike a blow at England's power in the East, and started upon his famous expedition to Egypt in 1798. Then it was that England in her turn found a naval genius whose achievements in war almost rival those of Bonaparte himself, and Nelson, by destroying the French fleet at the battle of the Nile, shut up the French expedition in Egypt without hope of succor or reinforcement. Austria, this time aided by Russia, believing that French invincibility depended upon the presence of Bonaparte at the head of French armies, tore up the treaty of Campo Formio, and once more France had to meet the attack of vast land armies. At the moment of crisis, Bonaparte left his army in Egypt and, evading the blockading fleet of the English ships, escaped to France. Hurrying to Paris, he overthrew the government of the Directory on the 18th Brumaire, year VIII. (November 9, 1799) and established the new government of the Consulate, which he soon showed meant the government of himself, for as First Consul he entirely overshadowed his two colleagues.

The government of the Consulate, that is, the government of Napoleon Bonaparte, before increasing success made him assume the title of ruler of the French people, is of greater importance in French than in European history. The young general declared himself the champion of peace both at home and abroad. The victories of Marengo and Hohenlinden forced Austria to recognize by the treaty of Luneville, as she had formerly done by the treaty of Campo Formio, the Rhine as the eastern limit of France. The czar Paul of Russia, disgusted at the conduct of his allies during the late war, declared his enthusiastic admiration for the First Consul and suggested that Bonaparte should take the title of King of France. Even the English

government was forced to yield to pressure at home, and the signature of the treaty of Amiens in 1803 closed the doors of the Temple of Janus and gave Europe a short breathing-space of tranquillity.

At home the government of the Consulate was a government of reconciliation. By a concordat made with the pope the Roman Catholic Church was officially reestablished in France. Exiles returned; the odious punishments of confiscation of property and judicial assassination decreed against them were repealed, and those who returned were encouraged to take service under the new *régime*. A strong civil administration was organized; brigandage was suppressed; the Vendéans were pacified; manufactures, commerce, and agriculture revived, and the blessings of peace brought about a new era of prosperity. The finances further were set in order and a rational system of fair and equal taxation was for the first time inaugurated in France. Not least in importance among the works of the Consulate was the promulgation of the Civil Code, which replaced an anomalous and antiquated system of jurisprudence and judicial administration by a simple, intelligible, and modern system. The era of the Consulate is the halcyon time of the transition period between old and new France. Unhappily it was of but brief duration. Regenerated France did not and could not with its force in the hands of one ambitious man prolong the age of peace, and the breathing-space of the Consulate was followed by the wars of the Empire.

This is not the place to discuss the causes which led to the outbreak of war between France and England which closed the period of the Consulate. It is certain that during the peace the First Consul had been busy preparing for war, and that from the superb material bequeathed to him from the wars of the Revolution he had organized the Grande Armée. This force, consisting as it did of men in the height of their physical strength while yet of old experience in military operations, longed for employment in its professional capacity, and its master was equally anxious to use his

tempered weapon lest it should turn against himself. However, before the Grande Armée set forth on its career of conquest the young war lord resolved to show Europe that he was in name as well as in fact the ruler of France, and assumed the title of Emperor of the French. To add greater luster to his title and to signify that he intended to be not merely ruler of France but arbiter of Western Europe, the pope was induced to come to Paris to assist at the coronation of the new Charlemagne.

Europe was resolved to resist Napoleon's ambition. Toward the close of the Consulate he had shown by his interference in Switzerland and his annexation of Piedmont that he had abandoned the policy of the "natural limits" and intended to extend his dominion indefinitely. The feeling of apprehension thus created, more than anything else, caused Austria and Russia, the latter now ruled by the young son of the murdered czar Paul, to listen to the advances of England and to form the third coalition against France. Great events rapidly succeeded each other. Napoleon, despairing of invading England, turned against her continental allies. The victory of Austerlitz in 1805 humbled the power of Austria. In the following year Prussia was overthrown at the battle of Jena. Finally, in 1807, after the battle of Friedland, Napoleon and the czar Alexander met at Tilsit and discussed the rearrangement of Europe. To his sentimental young friend Napoleon held forth the idea of restoring the ancient empires of the East and West, attributing to Alexander the dominions and the power of the Byzantine Empire, while he declared himself satisfied with the share of the Cæsars of the West.

Fully adopting this idea, Napoleon proceeded to reorganize Germany, abolishing ancient duchies and principalities and creating new kingdoms in Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Saxony; Prussia was permitted to exist, but shorn of the greater part of Poland and of all territory to the west of the Elbe; brand-new states were called into being, the kingdom of Westphalia for the conqueror's youngest brother, Jerome, and the grand-

duchy of Berg for his brother-in-law, Murat; and throughout Germany French influence brought in French ideas, equality before the law, simplicity of administration, religious toleration, and the abolition of serfdom and other degrading relics of medieval feudalism. Even beyond the actual limits of French influence the reforms which France had won through the Revolution were extended. Notably was this the case in Prussia, where a great minister, Stein, laid the foundations of modern Prussia.

But the activities of the Cæsar of the West were not confined to Germany. In 1806 the Batavian Republic ceased to exist and was replaced by the kingdom of Holland, of which the throne was conferred upon Louis Bonaparte. In Italy the northwestern portion, including Tuscany, was added to the French Empire; the northeastern portion, including Milan and Venice, was formed into the kingdom of Italy, of which Napoleon himself was titular ruler, while he conferred the actual government upon Eugène de Beauharnais, his step-son; in the South the kingdom of Naples was given to Joseph Bonaparte. One quarter only of Western Europe retained its ancient independence. In the Iberian Peninsula the kingdom of Spain still remained under its Bourbon ruler, while the kingdom of Portugal, owing to its ancient alliance with England, was especially obnoxious to the French emperor.

The one enemy in arms against Napoleon was England. Nelson's victory at Trafalgar had so thoroughly destroyed the French and Spanish navies that the master of the Grande Armée thought no more of invading the island kingdom. He resolved instead to ruin its commerce and by establishing the continental blockade hoped to extinguish English trade. To do this effectually all the ports of Europe had to be closed to English ships and Napoleon resolved to attack Portugal. Speedily thereafter a pretext was afforded for interference in Spain; French troops entered Madrid and Joseph Bonaparte gave up his throne at Naples for the grander title of King of Spain and the Indies.

From 1808 to 1812 Napoleon seemed to be the mightiest monarch that ever ruled in

Europe, but signs were not wanting to those who had eyes to see that his permanent tenure of inordinate power was impossible. During these four years the limits of the French Empire were still further extended; Rome was annexed and the pope taken prisoner to France; Holland and the coastline of Germany to Bremen and Hamburg, with Lubeck on the Baltic Sea, were included within the administration of French officials, while French garrisons occupied the fortresses of Prussia and of Poland. Austria in 1809 tried once more to oppose Napoleon in arms, appealing to the half-formed sentiment of German nationality, but in vain. The campaign was followed by the French emperor's marriage to the Austrian archduchess Maria Louisa, and the birth of a son seemed the foundation of a Napoleonic dynasty. In France itself the dazzling successes of the emperor silenced all opposition, and a splendid court symbolized the restoration of a monarchy as autocratic as any the Bourbons had exercised.

But during these four years of seeming triumph there had developed in Spain a national opposition to the French invading armies. For the first time Napoleon met with the resistance of a nation and not with the government of a state. Supported by an English army commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterward the Duke of Wellington, the Portuguese recovered and afterward maintained their independence, and in 1812 Wellington was able to afford effectual aid to the Spaniards. Elsewhere the national spirit made its appearance, notably in Germany, and only needed an opportunity to show itself in all its force. The opportunity was given by Napoleon's disastrous expedition to Russia in 1812. Of the causes of this expedition it is enough to state that the French emperor's head was turned by the giddy height of power to which he had ascended and that he no longer was ready, as he had been in 1807, to share Europe with another. Great was the failure of the Russian invasion; what was left of the Grand Armée after the previous frequent campaigns was destroyed by the frosts and snows of Russia.

It was true that Napoleon did not immediately confess himself beaten. With an army of invalids and conscripts he fought the campaigns of 1813 in Saxony until the battle of Leipsic consummated its destruction and drove him across the Rhine, just as Wellington, having freed the peninsula from French armies, forced his way across the Pyrenees. The day of reckoning had come. The French people refused to rise *en masse* to resist the enemies of Napoleon, as they had risen in 1793 to resist the enemies of France. The emperor was unable to drive back the invaders, and in 1814 Paris was occupied by the allied armies, Napoleon abdicated, and the First Empire was at an end.

This rapid *résumé* of the great events of the Empire is intended to bring out two points, the extent of the influence of France over Europe when represented by Napoleon and the Grande Armée, and the chief cause of the overthrow of this enormous power. The French armies carried with them over Europe the destruction of the relics of medieval governments and ideas, and extended those of the principles of the French Revolution which affected the individual. Napoleon had, before the Grande Armée started on the campaign of Austerlitz, extinguished the political ideals of the revolutionary period in France itself, and therefore they could not be transmitted to other nations. Napoleon's fall illustrated the force of a third principle which had come to the front in the days of the French Revolution in addition to the principles of individual freedom and popular sovereignty; namely, the principle of nationality. It was the outburst of French national sentiment that had made France victorious in 1793; it was the outbreak of Spanish and German national feeling that made the overthrow of Napoleon inevitable. His inordinate ambition indeed had its share in bringing about his fall, but his overthrow was largely due to the fact that he had preferred to be the ruler of a French state instead of being the hero of French nationality. It was the master of the Grande Armée who conquered Europe, not the representative of the French people.

(End of Required Reading for June.)

MAYOR WILLIAM L. STRONG OF NEW YORK CITY.

BY ANDREW C. WHEELER.

THE wave of reform that swept New York in 1894-95 brought to public attention in the mayor's chair a man unlike his immediate predecessors in character, vocation, temperament, and ambition. However positive the impulse of indignant revulsion—and it was really a profound feeling of disgust brought about by the Parkhurst and Lexow exposures—the selection of Mr. William L. Strong was rather a negative choice. So fearless and audacious had been the activities of professional politicians that it seemed to be the part of prudence to look in the direction of that matured calmness that is content to hold fast that which is good. Put into the one word that is oftenest used, this means conservatism, and as reform movements are, as a rule, at least in politics, radical movements we are here met by the first notable feature of the New York crisis.

The reform elements looked away from the indignant impulses of the hour to the cooler and calmer promises of a man securely grounded in the common but abiding virtues of good citizenship, commercial integrity, and unimpeachable private worth.

Mr. Strong was avowedly a Republican. The city was overwhelmingly Democratic. The best evidence that for once partisan fealty and clan adhesiveness were broken into and routed by the sudden energy of public indignation is that Mr. Strong was elected.

A great many local and confusing interests were focused in this fight. It is not necessary to inquire what they were. It is sufficient for our purpose to know that the Republican party of itself could not have elected Mr. Strong, and that, therefore, whatever results were accomplished by his election were due not to the public belief in the inherent virtue of a party but to the momentary breakdown of party lines.

The selection of Mr. Strong was made by

the conservative commercial element of the community. It cast about first of all for a man with an acknowledged business and administrative capacity. It would not, perhaps, be straining a point to say that there was a sudden desire to see an old-fashioned gentleman once more in the mayor's chair. The traditions of the office were not entirely lost. Plenty of independent burghers there were still living who remembered the time when the mayor was honored and respected as a chief magistrate, and fitly represented the dignity, the virtue, and the pride not only of commercial, but of social, New York. They too, no doubt, had seen the office pass into the keeping of clan chiefs, uninformed political adventurers, buffoons, and mischief-making brawlers. Oakey Hall dressed himself in a suit of green on St. Patrick's Day and walked the plaza in front of the city hall. After he retired from the mayoralty he wrote a play, opened a theater, and acted the part of a Sing Sing convict. Fernando Wood conceived the idea of imitating South Carolina and taking New York out of the Union, and at one point in his career it required the Seventh Regiment to coerce him to a sense of duty. The claim of satire no less than of justice compels me to say that Fernando Wood was a reform mayor.

If the desire of the community in 1894 could be put into a phrase I think it would read like this: We want something with character, comfortable and clean, and strong enough to stay so till we get through with it.

At all events that is what the community got of its own free choice. Mr. Strong was not an aggressive champion of reform. He was not in any sense an energetic leader of the suddenly marshaled forces of revolt. He unquestionably blushed with the people at the exposures, and must have groaned with them at times under the double burden of dishonesty and disgrace; he unquestion-

ably sympathized with the whole movement of reform. But it was not as a statesman or a moralist, or even as a doctrinaire, but only as a practical, methodical, and clear-minded business man, who, when he had anything to do, went about it in the straightest way, or got the men to go about it for him who would also select the straight way. He was not a brilliant man, hardly a creative man, but there are sterling abilities that neither open new paths nor scintillate. As a rule they prefer old paths that are narrow and straight. He was trained in administrative measures by long experience, and he had learned to judge men from their centers and not from their circumferences. He was marked by the patient sagacity of an old, rather than by the competitive in-trepidity of the new, school.

It is hardly conceivable from what we have seen of him that he had any ardent political ambitions. He had arrived at that period of life when if a man has earned repose he is inclined to look for it. The honor of being the immediate successor of Gilroy, or Grace, or Grant was not to an old New Yorker very dazzling.

These considerations lay bare the supposition that Mayor Strong accepted the office with no more longing than is felt by the citizen who serves upon a petty jury. He was chosen, and I think he consented to be uncomfortable for the sake of the community. The Chamber of Commerce and the business interests looked his way with an instinctive sense of relief.

So far then as the mayor was a part of the reform movement of 1894 it was a return to normal and rational methods, as when the physician throws away speculation and drugs and tells the patient to open the window and let in the uneventful sunshine, the platitudinous air, and live properly.

To know just what such a method accomplished one has to know what the condition of the patient was before Mr. Strong took office. No magazine held down to chastity of events as well as chastity of language would consent to print the diagnosis. It is at least incredible in its authenticated and complicated iniquity. Two summary

facts have outlived in popular reproach all the nauseous particulars. New York on its human or organized side was the wickedest and stupidest, and on its material side was the wealthiest and dirtiest city in America. Matthew Arnold said it was the dirtiest city in the world, with the possible exception of Mecca. Other cities have been sacked while their inhabitants were steeped in incidental debauch, but you may search history in vain to find an example of a city that consented to be plundered and ravished for a quarter of a century uninterruptedly. Whether New York was dirtier than it was dishonest will probably forever remain a subject of dispute between the doctor of divinity and the doctor of medicine; but it is very certain that this inheritance of dirt was the heirloom that every successive Tammany administration wore upon its breast as its proudest totem.

The writer of this article was born in New York and has lived in it with short intervals of travel for over fifty years. He can conscientiously say that for every year of that time the complaint of the citizens and the contempt of the stranger have gone up together. Millions of dollars were appropriated during every administration to clean the streets; the greater part of the money went into the pockets of political contractors, most of whom built suburban villas or club-houses at a safe remove from their own filth.

Dirt was a Democratic precedent. It never at any of its stages had even the redeeming feature of novelty. When Dickens visited America the hogs were rooting in front of the Astor House, and when the Prince of Wales came they were running wild in the Bowery. They had only gone up town in the general movement of enterprise. No cleanly New Yorker can in his heart blame Rudyard Kipling for his bar-rack-room opinion that New York was a hog-pen between two sewers. It is a fact that up to 1894 there was hardly a crossing on our business streets or handsomest promenades that in wet weather was fordable without the voluntary preparation of the mendicant sweeper. Born and bred ad-

jacent to an everlasting sty, New Yorkers came at last to regard metropolitan nastiness as one of the irremediable perquisites of democracy, and settled into a cynical apathy that was unrelieved by anything but the habit of echoing their forefathers' hopeless humor. Seven times the city has suffered from a filth pestilence, and we saw our great thoroughfares white with the chloride of lime that was meant to neutralize the feculence that could not be removed.

The reason why I have dwelt upon this aspect of recent New York is that one day I was talking to a woman at a mission about a profligate and almost irredeemable young man in whom I had taken an interest, and she told me that she had some hope that he had experienced a change of heart, for she had noticed that morning that he had taken a bath. I suppose that cleanliness in a mission or in a metropolis is not only a grace but a necessity if it would be next to godliness. And I want to say that it would be an adequate if not a complete testimonial to put upon the future monument of our present mayor these words: "William L. Strong was made chief magistrate of this city in 1895, and for the first time in its history it became clean."

If the accomplishment of this Aугean task of cleaning New York had not been the result of the application of the simplest, the oldest, and the easiest of methods it would not be worth mentioning, and the initial application of it was made by Mayor Strong. He simply used common sense and common honesty in his selection of a street commissioner.

It sounds incredible to say that this had never been done before. But in our century-end condition the simplest things are the most incredible. How much bravery it required to turn a deaf ear to all the politicians and to remain unperturbed and confident that the work well done would be the best answer both to the people and to the parties, we shall never know. But with all precedents and traditions before us we can see that it was a right-angled departure from every fundamental law of New York politics. Mr. Strong's childlike notion that a man

ought to be appointed to clean the streets who would clean them filled the air with sardonic laughter. However, the man cleaned them, and the moment New York found to its astonishment that it was clean it began to have something like an open desire to be honest.

The moral sense of the community had been paralyzed. The possibility of getting honest men into the public service was hardly entertained without a sneer. It was said with all the emphasis of experience that the forces that held the city captive did not want honest men, and the honest men would not respond if they did. This fallacy had eaten into the bones of the body politic. Wherever there was wealth or social influence it shunned politics as one shuns a leper. The chasm between Dives and Lazarus was opened between Fifth Avenue and the city hall. Under our present charter Mayor Strong had the opportunity to break into this condition by his appointments and confirmations; and that he proceeded to do with admirable equanimity. Both Commissioner Waring of the street department and Commissioner Roosevelt of the police department are examples of the complete insulation of public duty from party pull. It is true that all of Mayor Strong's appointments have not been such signal examples of the right man in the right place, but it is the general opinion that in his selection of men he has demonstrated the feasibility and the advisability of going directly to the unfettered man of character if one is to fight dirt and depravity.

It is not necessary to go back to the malodorous expositions of 1894 to show that the police were almost as bad as the streets they patrolled under ring rule. The captains retired rich; the rank and file were recruited from the classes they were employed to arrest. The whole force was used as an enormous conduit through which Tammany Hall drew its blood money from outlawry.

Recent events have shown that the moral status of the police has undergone a change equivalent to the sanitary improvement in our streets. In short, as Carlyle says at

the end of his "French Revolution," "A man having arrived, things began to straighten themselves out." It is that simple fact that gives whatever warrant there is for this article. It is indeed the conspicuous fact, if one thinks of it rightly, that the civic revolution has left for us, bringing us abreast of the serene and abiding factors that in the tumult of politics are obscured and forgotten.

Somewhere under the surface of life, so wildly insurgent and wearisomely distraught, there abide the serener simplicities and the secure humilities—the everlasting commonplaces of character that, like the stone tables of the law, have been wrought in the storm and stress of individual Sinais, to be dug from the debris of disaster afterward, arcane, imperishable and touched by the finger of the Infinite.

It is to the accessible and immutable centers that man turns in defeat and despair—individually looking up to their origin and socially casting about for some human evidence of them. So often has this been the case in the history of our country that we have learned to say that when a crisis arrives God makes a man to fit it. As if God were not always helping men to make themselves, in unobtrusive ways, deep down—nurturing, annealing, disciplining, not indeed for special dramatic occasions, but for all occasions in which the sunshine of common duty and the equitable storms of self-sacrifice make up the heroism of common and uneventful lives, and store the world of man, as the world of external nature is stored, full of the power for all emergencies.

Men like Mayor Strong are really storage batteries of conventional power; they draw, one might say, their latent energies unconsciously from the environment of long-adjusted conditions, in which the primal truths of social stability have passed over from explicit statement to implicit acceptance. They have simply organized the truth into the common sense of action. Taken from the flatboat, the counting-room, or the workshop and given the reins of government, they have often brought with them the lessons of patience, obedience, and a faith in the puis-

sance of well-doing that have proved of inestimable value.

Mayor Strong, in any fair survey, must represent, not the exceptional, but the average American gentleman of conservative training—just such a man as every city and hamlet of our country can produce, for such men are always in reserve; a man of thrift, of unperturbed shrewdness, of equable judgment, of large, well-disciplined sympathies, of conforming reverence, of fixed habits of thought and conduct, with a broad, quick knowledge of men and affairs, unaggressive but deep-rooted, somehow signifying on the deck of action the anchor rather than the banner; in demeanor more like the retired English merchant than the unretired American banker; with pronounced staying power in the breadth of his face, but with a flickering sensibility in the amiable tenacity of his eyes; in a word, a solid man, and therefore to the solid men of New York a buttress, rather than a flying battalion.

Any one can see how interesting it is to New Yorkers to watch this old-time experiment of going back to the cool pleasaunces of life for a representative, instead of resorting again to the noisy potato-patch of politics.

Mr. Strong stands for the best, though not the most conspicuous social element of New York. By the best I mean that portion of the community that has conserved in unostentatious but elegant homes both the virtues and the graces that distinguished the fathers and the mothers of the republic. It is pleasant to know that all those patriarchal and even parochial tap-roots have not been swept away in the rush and roar of the cosmopolitan inundation.

Mr. Strong's acceptance of the mayoralty, it has been said, brought to the office the flavor of musk pink and bohea, and I dare say it is true, but the remark is only valuable as a comparison. We must not forget that the flavor of boiled cabbage and whiskey has been displaced.

Not the least important of the mayor's functions are social. He ought to be able in his own person to bridge the growing

chasm between wealthy New York and poor New York ; to lend the dignity of his official position and presence to such charitable, religious, educational, and commemorative occasions as need him, and thus identify the body politic with the more gracious purposes of the body social. The old myth of an alderman who was actually recognized in society turns out to be no myth at all, but a human possibility, and to our astonishment the recognition doesn't hurt an alderman or even a police commissioner.

It is of interest to know that the advent of such a man as Mr. Strong is coincident with the enlargement of the city under the Greater New York scheme. This magnificent act of consolidation which creates out of several municipalities and outlying burghs a city of 3,294,865 people puts an entirely new face on our metropolitan problems, and at this time of writing all views of the practical working of the larger commonwealth must be more or less speculative. One thing may, however, be said with something like certainty : William L. Strong will not be the mayor of the Greater New York, unless his emphatic utterances on the subject are absolutely meaningless. He has said very distinctly that he has no desire to remain in public life, and does not intend to remain in it. From what we know of the man this is a decision. Any one who knows what the duties of the mayor have been under the new *régime* will appreciate his desire for absolute rest. But his retirement

will not affect the impulse he has given to good government. He was elected for two years, but under the new constitution of the state, which requires municipal elections to be held on odd years, his term has been extended and he will therefore not retire until January 1, 1898. In the two years of his administration that have passed, New York has experienced something like a renaissance of local pride, and nowhere has this been shown so gratifyingly as in its efforts to improve its public buildings, domains, and approaches. A new activity and a new emulation entered into all the departments the moment it was understood that there was an official desire for honest work.

New avenues have been laid out and others projected, some of them the finest in the world ; new docks, new parks, new school-houses are under way, condemned tenements have given way to breathing-spaces. On the other hand licenses have been refused to immoral shows and public violators of decency have been indicted. To all of these things the friends of Mayor Strong point as evidences that he has kept faith with the people, and it is believed that if they have received the object-lesson aright they will not go back to the system of spoliation and worse than feudal vassalage of former conditions. In this belief we look forward to a metropolis second only to London in population, and one which ought to be second to none in good government, as it is second to none in natural advantages.

THE LARK.

BY NELLIE FRANCES MILBURN.

THE lark his sweetest carol pours
When there is no one near him ;
For joy of life he soars and sings,
Nor cares if no one hear him.

Then, if thou hast a message, speak
The thought to thy lips welling ;
Care not at all if no one heed,
But find a joy in telling.

A SLAVE'S DEVOTION.

BY THORPE GREENLEAF.

"WELL! This is the first time I ever saw a man beat rock by note."

The speaker was a horseman watching two young men, one white, the other black, breaking rock on a turnpike. His scrutiny was returned with compound interest from under the lowering brows of the negro, but was unnoticed by his companion on account of the latter's being doubly occupied. Besides breaking the rock the white laborer had a Latin grammar propped up in the pile before him and his hammer kept time with the cadences of a Latin conjugation. When his attention was attracted by the stranger's voice he paused to say:

"Were you speaking to me, sir?"

"Not exactly. I rather think I was speaking to myself. What book have you there, that seems so fascinating?"

"It's a Latin grammar."

"Indeed! Not so very lively reading, then?"

"No, you would hardly expect that of a dead language."

"No, hardly. But you seemed so absorbed. Are you learning anything from it out here in this broiling sun?"

"Oh, yes," the youth replied, wiping the perspiration from his brow, "you see I am getting pretty well warmed up to the task."

"No doubt of that," the stranger said, evidently bent on pursuing the conversation. "But judging from the steady swing of your hammer I should call it a rather dark outlook for the grammar lesson."

"Never got more light on the subject all the time I was in Transylvania University."

Blinking sympathetically the horseman exclaimed:

"Ah, so you are a university man?"

There was no more levity, but a half-breathed sigh in the answer:

"I was last year, but I shall not go again till next year."

Was it pity for the country's misfortune in being thus deprived of the fine football material he saw in the young man that stirred the horseman's heart and reechoed in the next remark?

"It seems like some man who admires grit and struggling genius and who has the cash would help you through."

"Sir?"

The speaker was attired in "tow linen," but the haughty surprise with which he addressed that "sir" to the stranger belied his humble garb and occupation. The horseman saw his mistake and in hurried deprecation stammered:

"No offense, my dear sir, no offense. Of course you are well able to paddle your own canoe and will be all the better for it."

Then deftly changing the subject he asked:

"Will you attend the one mile foot-race at Lexington Saturday week?"

The mention of sport, as was anticipated, aroused all the Kentucky blood of the young rock-breaker, and he eagerly inquired, though with no intention of committing himself again:

"Who will run?"

"I shall run against Kentucky."

"And you are ——"

"John Hurst, the champion of Virginia. It takes one thousand dollars to enter and I will cover five such entries. The winners, should there be any," and Mr. Hurst smiled self-complacently, "can settle the championship of Kentucky among themselves. Come to the race, Mr. ——, Mr. ——"

"Rosser, sir—Lovick Rosser, at your service."

"Come to the race, Mr. Rosser."

"Thank you, sir; perhaps I may."

"Good morning, Mr. Rosser."

"Good day, Mr. Hurst."

The champion of Virginia ambled off in

the direction of Lexington, and for a half-hour nothing was heard but the steady clack, clack, clack of the hammers as the workers toiled on. Then the negro spoke:

"Mars Lovick, you can beat de hin' sights offen dat Figinian a runnin'."

"You never saw him run, Tom."

"I knows dat, Mars Lovick, but I *has* seen *you* run, an' I jist nachilly *know* dat no little dried-up 'scuse of a man like him can run wid you. Now, Mars Lovick, jist listen to reason. Sence George died it takes you an' me a year to keep you in school a year. You jist run dis race, an' in fifteen minutes you'll make 'nough to finish you up. Den in three years you'll graduate, but ef we go 'long dis here way it will take six years; don't you see?"

"Yes, I see, and if I had the money I'd run the race, but I haven't the one thousand dollars and that ends it," was the impatient reply.

"You's got *me*, Mars Lovick, an' I's cheap at fifteen hundred dollars."

"Tom, you don't think I'd sell you to get money to run a foot-race with, do you?"

"You could borrow de one thousand dollars of Square Tedgood, an' give him a mortgage on me."

"Hush, Tom, I won't listen to such talk. Don't bother me any more now. I must get this lesson."

The young fellow resolutely put the thought of the foot-race from his mind as he bent to his book and hammer.

He was a magnificent creature. In a region justly celebrated for large men he stood whole inches above his neighbors. He was a widow's son, and as his share of his father's estate had been given two negro men. At the age of seventeen he entered school, intending to use the labor of his two slaves to keep himself there, and at graduation he was going to manumit George and Tom. But George had died the first year, and he was now working with Tom to get money for his second year's schooling.

Tom's physique was little inferior to Lovick's. They were born, one in the "big house," the other in the quarters, on

the same day. The same faithful black breast had nourished them both. They had been inseparable chums, with the well-defined distinction of master and servant perfectly understood from an early day. Lovick, in view of giving Tom his freedom, had taught him to "read, write, and cipher." A thousand common joys and a thousand common griefs bound the African's being to the Caucasian's fate in a way that people brought up since the war can scarcely appreciate. Tom was a pagan in so far as Lovick was his demigod.

Mrs. Rosser lived near at hand, and when dinner was over that day her son went with her into the negro quarters to give some directions to her servants. At the door they heard Tom talking to Aunt Aggie.

"I tells you, mammy, he can jist beat de United Earth a runnin'. Don't I 'member when he run 'round de man from Louisville in a three hundred yard dash? An' haint he beat everything in dis 'lection precinct? Why, on de las' day of 'lection, when Joe Hungate had packed up his saloon traps ready to leave, de young fellows begin ter jump offen de counter onto de groun'. Well, Mars Lovick loafed 'roun' tell de bes' jumper had made his bes' jump, den Mars Lovick he jist kindly keerless-like got on de counter, beat de bes' jump six inches, turned 'roun', toed his own heel-marks, an' hopped back on dat counter jist like a bird."

"Yes, Tom," said Lovick, entering, "but none of those men were professionals. This Hurst runs races for a living, and I suppose he knows all about the business."

"An' I s'pose ef you fetch one or two of your big jumps you'll git so everlastin' far ahead o' him that what he knows 'bout de business won't do him no good."

"If it was a short dash I believe I could beat him, but I never ran a mile."

"Dis is Monday, an' de race don't come off tell next Saturday week, an' you can practice tell then."

Right here Tom's poor idolatrous heart overflowed, and in impassioned speech he drew a vivid picture of Lovick's future; he dwelt with pathos upon the hardships his

young master was then undergoing; he spat vile contempt at the insignificant Virginian, and lauded his master's prowess in almost Homeric periods. He had a habit of stringing together words that might have come in the same column of a spelling book, and he wound up by saying:

"Mars Lovick, ef you run wid de Figinian you'll salivate 'im! Yes, you'll decimate 'im, propagate 'im, sublimate 'im, devastate 'im, palpitate 'im, indurate 'im, graduate 'im!"

If "eloquence is the art of persuasion," then Tom was a high-grade orator, for he convinced his little audience that the race ought to be run. Lovick's foster mother was weaving back and forth under the spell of the harangue, and his real mother was more affected than she would have admitted. Lovick really wanted to run the race, but had sternly repelled the desire. He was now wavering, when Aunt Aggie tremblingly said:

"Honey, yo jist go to Square Tedgood an' put up dis yere niggah for de one thousand dollars, like he says, an' den go an' run de race."

"I believe I'd run the race if I were you, Lovick. It seems almost providential that you have the opportunity," said Mrs. Rosser.

Thus persuaded, Lovick yielded. The strongest arguments in the temptation came from the one most vitally interested. The young student was indeed peculiarly tempted. So he spent the remainder of the day in negotiating the loan from Squire Tedgood, who promptly advanced one thousand dollars on a note that was secured by a mortgage on Tom's person.

The interim until the race was occupied by rigid training, and on the appointed day Rosser was driven by Tom to Lexington with the one thousand dollar stake, and entered for the race.

Hurst and Rosser were the only entries. As Tom took his master's duster he whispered:

"Mars Lovick, you'll beat him so bad he'll be 'shamed to tell his name."

At the start Lovick sprang forward and seemed easily to lead by two or three yards to the first quarter post. Of course the

crowd was in sympathy with him and lustily cheered. Tom was wild. He waved the duster around his head, and cheered louder than the loudest. But after the first quarter it was evident that Hurst was gaining upon Rosser. The enthusiasm of the crowd subsided and Tom wailed out:

"He's a ketchin' 'im! Good Lord, he's a ketchin' 'im! Fetch one o' your big jumps, Mars Lovick, or he'll ketch you shore."

The racers neared the second post abreast, and soon afterward Hurst began to draw ahead. Tom sprang up and down frantically, beat the earth with his duster, and cried:

"R-u-n, Mars Lovick! Run! run! run! He's a gwine to beat you shore ef you don't run hard."

Hurst was still slowly gaining. Tom was now at the end of his own strength, so he fell upon his knees and poured forth the Lord's Prayer at the top of his voice. Opening his eyes, he saw the distance between the runners still widening. Closing them again, he repeated "Now I lay me" in the same high key and loud tone.

Even this was inefficacious, and Tom, for the first time in his life, composed his own petition.

"My good Lord," he cried, "is you gwine for to let Mars Lovick git beat? You shore won't 'low no sech skin an' bones 'scuse of a man beat de bes' man in de Blue Grass! Why, Lord, it'll be a owdacious shame for him to come over here in our country an' beat de bes' man in it. 'Sides dat, Lord, you don't know what Mars Lovick is gwine to do wid dis here money. Maybe he'll educate himself for a preacher. An' den, Lord, ef Mars Lovick loses I'll b'long to Square Tedgood, an' who'll take care of my young marster den? Oh, Lord, stop dis here fool Figinian 'afore he beats my marster. Send a earthquake, or a cyclone, or a lightning bolt an' knock 'im end-ways, Lord, so my marster will win. Paralyze 'im, pulverize 'im, dramatize 'im, mesmerize 'im, stigmatize 'im—do anything, Lord, jist so you don't let him git here fust."

Tom now opened his eyes to behold the contestants on the home stretch. They were

running toward the crowd, and for a moment Tom got the notion that Lovick was ahead. In delirious joy he sprang to his feet and shouted:

"Hooray for Mars Lovick Rosser! Hooray for de bes' man in de Blue Grass!"

Just then he discovered his mistake. Rosser had indeed gained on Hurst, but the Virginian was still leading. There was yet a chance that some accident might befall Hurst and give Rosser the race, and the Kentuckian was holding on with that hope. But Tom's tune now changed, and he screamed:

"R-u-n, Mars Lovick! Run! run! run! He's gwine to beat you ef you don't run hard."

He besought the Lord to give Lovick the race, he boasted that Lovick could win too easy to talk about, and implored Lovick to run harder, all in the same breath. Many of the bystanders said that they had never heard a man hold out so long in such a high, loud tone. The young master heard it and strained every nerve. It seemed to him that he must win somehow, for the poor negro's sake. But the trained skill of the other man triumphed, and he was declared the victor.

Tom wrapped Lovick in an overcoat and helped him into the buggy. As he was about to drive homeward, Hurst came to the side of the vehicle and said:

"Mr. Rosser, you made me run harder than I ever want to run again. If you had had a month's training I could not have beaten you. But what is the matter with your man? He is spitting blood!"

Lovick glanced toward Tom. Every moment the negro was spitting a mouthful of blood.

"What's the matter, Tom?" was Lovick's excited query.

"I hurt myself a hollerin'," came in a whisper. His shouting had brought on a hemorrhage.

"Here, Dr. Gwartyne! This way quick! Something is wrong with my servant."

The physician, after a glance, said:

"It is a hemorrhage of the lungs. Who would have thought that such a strong look-

ing man had weak lungs! Get him to bed immediately, Mr. Rosser."

Lovick took the reins and drove rapidly to neighboring negro quarters. The doctor followed, and after a brief examination said he could do nothing for the man, and that he would have to die. Utterly dismayed, Lovick sank upon his knees and cried:

"Oh! Tom, my best, my kindest friend, do not die and leave me. Oh why did I consent to run? Say that you forgive me for murdering you, Tom, or I shall go wild."

The dying slave turned to his master and said:

"Mars Lovick, you haint murdered me; please take dat back before I die, for it seems like I can't die easy wid you a feelin' dat way. Take it back, Mars Lovick."

"All—right—Tom, I—take it—back," came in choked sobs from Lovick, as a crimson stream burst from Tom's lips. After a moment Tom could speak again:

"No, Mars Lovick, it's all my fault. You wouldn't a run ef it hadn't a ben for me. But don't you worry for me, marster. It wouldn't be like livin' to b'long to any one else, an' sence you've lost de race I'd radder go dan not."

A more violent hemorrhage than ever here set in. The doctor forbade any more conversation, but when he could speak again Tom resumed:

"I can't save myself by bein' quiet, an' I've got some things I must say to my marster before I go. Mars Lovick, you've got anudder race to run. De prize ain't a thousand dollars, but it's a crown of glory. I begged you to run dis race to-day, an' now I want you to run de big, long race an' git de big prize. Will you run, Mars Lovick?"

"Yes, Tom, I'll run."

The coughing and hemorrhage occurred almost uninterruptedly now, and his strength failed with alarming rapidity. After an hour the slave searched nervously about for the master's hand. He got it in one of his, and with his expiring ounce of strength bore that loved hand to his lips. He smiled then, and as Lovick bent low over him he said:

"Good-by, Mars Lovick. Run—hard—an'—git—de—big—prize."

HISTORIC CONCORD.

BY BISHOP JOHN F. HURST. LL.D.

"WON'T you hurry me?" "Not a bit, sir," answered McManus, the hackman, who, with his cab, stood ready for the first pilgrim who might arrive by the morning train from Boston and wish to see dear old Concord.

"Will you really let me take all the time I want? Not get a bit disturbed if I overstay in some house? Tell me everything you know, or ought to know?" These

and gorgeous sumac sprays from the roadside, and overstay in the Town Library and in the Historical Collection; and all without an impatient word or motion. Of course the next time I go to Concord McManus will be again my man. For all future excursions I suspect he will stand supreme as my ideal of a tourist's cabman, in patience, easy manners, and downright knowledge of his themes.



THE OLD MANSE.

were in substance my questions to my first acquaintance in the town, and he answered them all to my complete satisfaction. In truth be it said, too, that McManus kept his word to the letter. He let me linger in Hawthorne's sweet Old Manse, hang around the bronze Minute Man and gaze steadily at his flintlock, pick up pebbles or bits of shrubbery as souvenirs, gather golden-rod

It was a cool, fresh day in last August. The hours passed swiftly by, and only great and world-known names were heard or thought of. What with halting before the simple home of some one whose books had introduced a new epoch into literature, and now at some memorable spot where the great ball of the Revolution was set in motion by the sturdy New England yeomen,

one's thoughts became divided between a certain veneration for the magicians of the pen and the plain wielders of the musket for a new republic.

My driver took me according to his own will.

Frank B. Sanborn's house is bright and sunny, and has the air of the present rather than the past. The house of Louisa Alcott brings one back to other days, when her father used to teach his wonderful school by conversation, and expound high philosophy to the little folk. Louisa, the gifted daughter, grew up in that bracing ozone, and the wonder would have been had there not come from her pen such fancies as could bloom only in such rare environment.



THOREAU'S HOUSE.

Margaret Fuller used to be much in Concord, visiting her sister, nominally, but really bothering Emerson much with her questions, dreams, and literary impossibilities. The calm soul of our great American aphorist was disturbed, but he said nothing. He simply endured, and



CONCORD BRIDGE AND MINUTE MAN.

hoped for a better day on the morrow.

I was next taken to the Old Manse, the first of Hawthorne's two Concord homes. To the right is the very spot where the farmers "fired the shot heard round the world." There is a little enclosure, surrounded by a chain, which marks the burial-place of the few British soldiers killed in the first engagement. Here was fought the first battle of the Revolution—our loss, two killed and four wounded! Small as the cost was, the reward was beyond all arithmetic or chronology. Who

But of the Revolution, and of Concord's part in beginning it, one can well read in the books. What book, however, could tell of the Old Manse, and how it now appears, and what it is to American literature?

The orders on the weather-beaten board were strict—"No one admitted." I have often seen that before. Once, when a pedestrian in the Oberland and a companion of an Oxford student, I asked my associate how to see the Oxford University buildings to best advantage. He replied: "Go to any door, and if it is not locked walk in." I



CONCORD BRIDGE.

has a better right to speak of Concord and of Concord memorabilia than Emerson? And here is what he says: "We have no need to magnify the facts. Only two of our men were killed and four wounded. But here the British army was first routed and driven back, and if only two men, or only one man, had been slain, it was the first victory. The thunderbolt falls on an inch of ground but the light of it fills the horizon. The British instantly retreated!"

remembered his advice on reaching Oxford, and for that matter ever since. This will do for public buildings; but with private houses all the proprieties must be observed. I knocked softly on the door of the dear Old Manse.

The proprietors were away, but a young collegian had charge, and he was good enough to give me a welcome, take me around the various rooms of the lower floor, and meander with me through the



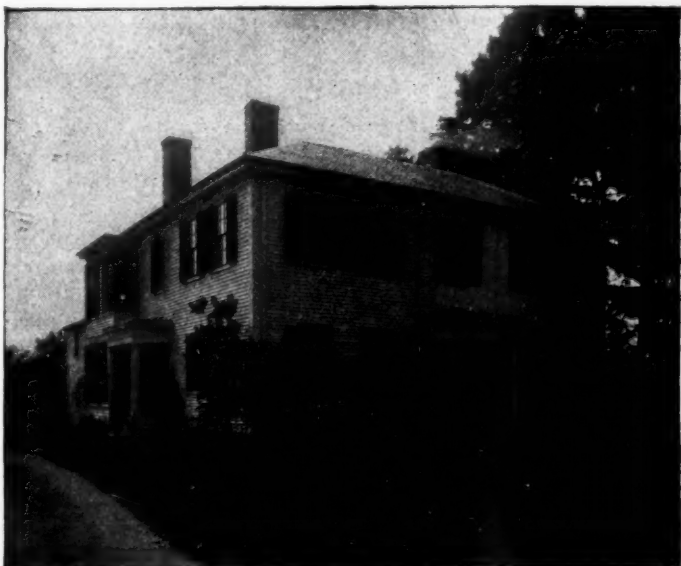
THE MINUTE MAN.

grounds. The present owner has a fine domestic library of about five thousand volumes. The rooms have no longer the old-time furnishings and paper-hanging, but the aroma of the shrine still lingers, and I read again in memory the precious "Mosses from an Old Manse." One well knows that Hawthorne had no anticipation of what large work he was doing when he was writing the "Mosses." One sees in them the dreamer, the worker, the poet

who never wrote rime, and the philosopher who never knew metaphysics. I came out of that weird place with a strange feeling, as if I had caught a whisper from the shy magician himself. I had seen for a moment only what he saw every day.

The streets of Concord are lined with trees. Oaks are everywhere. Their very trunks and boughs harmonize with the tough fiber of the men and women who made Concord a memory and a perpetual joy.

Sleepy Hollow is the cemetery of the immortals. Oaks stand about as watchful sentinels, and intertwine their gnarled boughs. Pines, too, look down from their spires upon the plain graves which their roots interlace. The modest tombs of the Alcotts are just across the path from that of Hawthorne. The latter is protected by a loose wire screen from possible intrusion, beside which, as a double safeguard, is a hedge of arbor-vitæ, but all loose and free, and so low that one can see everything he may wish. Myrtle creeps over the whole grave, while both pines and oaks look smilingly down upon the calm spot. The only stone to mark the grave is a simple headstone.



EMERSON'S HOUSE.

Thoreau's grave is close by. Near it I saw pines which were exuding limpid streams of turpentine. The fragrance was in the air. Are not the odors from Thoreau's charming pages, which never sold while he lived, to-day in all atmospheres, quickening and never harming?

Emerson's grave is marked by a rough stone, and lies between two great pines, one at the head and the other at the foot. The stone itself is rugged, sharp-angled, ivied, and sand gneiss and granite Matterhorns? for all the world like a miniature Matterhorn as seen from the hill above Zermatt. But size against size, who would not take one vital Emerson for a thou-

Here I saw the snap-box woman. She turned the thing on Emerson's grave, and then came the click, at the moment of my greatest exaltation. How one could wish that machine in the mid-Atlantic! Why doesn't the owner buy a picture at the shop and take the first train for elsewhere?

The whole cemetery is fascinating, both in the memories it suggests and the natural beauty which greets the eye. One can hardly take a step without seeing the name of some one whose book made its way through criticism to fame and a universal scepter.

Emerson's house is enclosed in fragrant pines. Near by, however, are lilacs and trailing arbutus, while two horse-chestnuts guard the entrance to the spacious yard. A niece of the calm thinker who used to occupy this memorable house gave me prompt admittance and showed me all the main rooms. The house is double, and on the right side of the hall was Emerson's library and working



THE DINING-ROOM AT THE WAYSIDE.



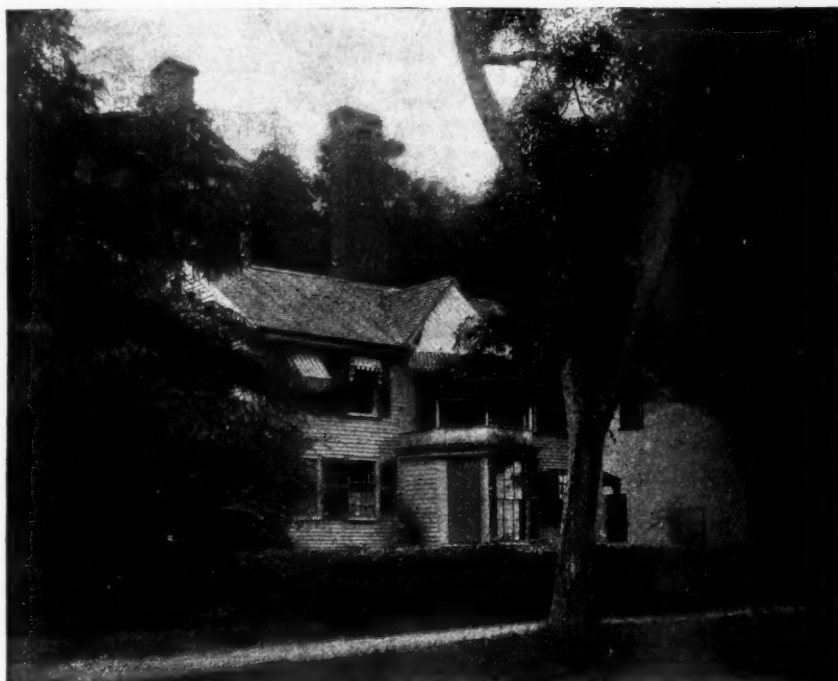
OLD FIRST CHURCH.

room, quite as he had left it. What associations throng about you as you cross the threshold! The Alcotts, Thoreau, Sanborn, Margaret Fuller, and whom else shall I say?—from far and near, came here frequently, and always were kindled into new activity by the master's unconscious oracles.

Books are everywhere in the Emerson house, and much the same as when the gentle hand of the poet used to fondle them, as Southey in his last days caressed his idols in sheep and calf. They stand

a gilt edge, be pretty sure it was an author's gift. Souvenirs of travel and friendship are not infrequent in the spare spaces on the walls. Here, for instance, is a portrait of John Knox, presented by Carlyle, with the Chelsea sage's statement that the picture is "the only one I ever saw which I believe to be a genuine portrait."

A little beyond the Emerson house, on the left side of the road leading toward Lexington, is "The Wayside," Hawthorne's home long after he had occupied the Old



THE WAYSIDE.

without order as to subjects, but properly enough as to size. A goodly number of first editions I noticed, many of them presentation copies to Mr. Emerson. A strong current of orientalism pervades them—history, myth, and poetry from the land of the sunrise. Goethe's "Divan" has its place close beside the "Secret of Hegel." Bindings do not figure in the least. Precious volumes prevail, gowned in well-worn and faded cloth. Where there is a glossy calf or

Manse, and, indeed, his final home. The main part is old, but the additions have given it something of a modern air. It had come into Alcott's hands from the elder days, and he sold it to Hawthorne in 1852. From time to time the owner improved it. After returning home from his Liverpool consulate and his journeys through England and Italy, and dreaming out his "Marble Faun," he set a big square room, like a box, right on top of the main building.

This he called his "tower," and it served him henceforth as a study. This house was the place in which, more than anywhere else, he achieved the largest work of his latest period. Here he spun out his sweet "Tanglewood Tales," his delightful pictures of English scenery and life which we read in "Our Old Home," and, last and saddest of all, "Septimius Felton," over whose unfinished pages fell the magician's wand. Hawthorne's son-in-law, George Parsons Lathrop, sold it in 1883 to Daniel

ceived me most kindly at his home, and told me he would shortly join me at the society building. Here he gave me ample time and every attention. His conversation was worth a thousand guide-books. He knew the men who had given Concord its sacred immortality—that of thought and pen. He submitted patiently to all my inquiries, and never once reminded me by word or manner that I was trespassing on his good nature. But, for that matter, everything and everybody in Concord



ALCOTT'S SCHOOL OF PHILOSOPHY.

Lothrop, the publisher of juvenile literature, to whose widow, the "Margaret Sidney" of fiction, it now belongs.

The Concord Antiquarian Society has a fine historical collection. The house is itself a charming bit of bric-a-brac, quaint, old-timey, and homelike. It fairly shimmers with the blaze of sweet colonial memories. My time of day was during the hours when it is generally closed, but Mr. George Tolman, who is the secretary, re-

seemed to have caught Emerson's peace. The collection is an old one, having been a half century in the making. Little money has been spent in acquiring historical objects, but the citizens of Concord have done more wisely; they have given of their own possessions; such as domestic and literary objects of all kinds, weapons, family treasures, and objects associated with the celebrated characters, not only of America, but of other lands. Here, for in-

stance, is a cream pitcher of Robert Burns' and a bit of tapestry from Mary Queen of Scots' bedchamber. If one wants to know how the New Englander lived in the simple colonial days, here he can find out. The house itself is so arranged as to show it all. The broad fireplace, the high-backed settles, the pewter dishes, the churn, the spinning-wheel, the tables with spider legs and claw feet, the straight-back chairs, the grandfatherly clocks, furniture from the Old Manse, chests of drawers, high-post bedsteads, tall tortoise-shell combs, fans of the Puritan girls, snuff-boxes, and many another thing which played its part in the charming colonial life. Here, too, was the very lantern which Paul Revere carried in his hand on his heroic ride from Boston to Lexington and immortality.

The Thoreau house is one of the chief Concord attractions, at least to one pilgrim. It has a small ell in the rear. What could such a scanty extension mean? It served as a diminutive lead-pencil factory. The father of Henry D. Thoreau was a manufacturer, in a small way, of lead-pencils. On them was marked "Made by Thoreau and Sons." One son died, and Henry and the father were the makers of the pencils. I saw one of their make at the Town Library, and heard this story: The pencils did not satisfy Henry. They were not good enough. He decided that he would continue to make until he had achieved a perfect one, and then he would stop. He

reached his goal, and then did stop, as did also the business a little later. At the family auction a few of the pencils were found and sold. A druggist of the place made a corner of the ware by buying all of them. Of course he gets a good price from visitors to Concord for the few that remain.

Objects of rare historic interest confront one on all the streets and along all the paths of Concord. Here is the Wright Tavern, built in 1747, which Major Pitcairn entered on the morning of the famous Concord fight, and boasted over his brandy, but in vain, that he would win the day. Here, too, is Old First Church, where the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts met, in 1774, and from which the thunder of revolution went out to every nook and corner of the colonies. "Merriam's Corner" was a turning-point, in its own great way, of destiny. A boulder preserves its history: "The British troops, retreating from the Old North Bridge, were here attacked in flank by the men of Concord and neighboring towns, and driven under a hot fire to Charlestown."

The next fighting, on a large scale, was at Bunker Hill. Then on it went—southward and at all points of the compass, until, after seven years, came silence and independence. Thus has it come about that the glare of Paul Revere's lantern shone out on a longer path than the few precious miles between the Old North Church in Boston and brave little Concord.

THE MANUFACTURE OF MATCHES.

HOW CAN IT BE MADE HEALTHFUL?

BY DR. E. MAGITOT.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

INDUSTRIAL conquests constitute the riches and the prosperity of nations, but like all human conquests they are often bought at the price of sacrifices and dangers. Work, the universal law of humanity, has the right to be protected; life is a capital whose security ought to be assured. **F—June.**

This is the part of hygiene, of that science, the youngest of all, perhaps, which has gained in our modern societies within a few years an importance so considerable, an extension so great, a favor so marked. Applied to the study of trades and professions, hygiene has found a vast field open

to its investigations and experiments by reason of the constantly increasing multiplicity of inventions and discoveries, origins of most varied industries.

Thanks to an infinity of processes, varied or graduated according to particular cases, it can be said that at the present time the industries remaining unhealthful are at the minimum. Why must the manufacture of matches yet be counted among them?

The match is certainly one of the most astonishing marvels of modern civilization, and if our present generations were not familiarized with it from infancy we would know better how to appreciate the advantages and the importance of this admirable discovery—fire within reach of every one.

It is Kammerer of Ehningen in Wurtemberg to whom must be attributed the real invention of the match, in 1832. With a mixture of chlorate of potash, sulphur of antimony, and gum, he made a paste with which he coated the extremity of a small stick of wood. The dried mixture took fire by simple friction upon a rugose surface.

As is seen, the first match did not contain phosphorus—a curious detail when compared with the last endeavors of the inventors, who strive to suppress phosphorus in the new inflammable pastes. But the same rock awaited the first attempts as well as the last: sudden explosive conflagrations occasioned numerous accidents. The matches of Kammerer were already falling into complete discredit when he conceived the idea of replacing the sulphur of antimony by phosphorus. It was a considerable advance from the standpoint of inflammability of the match, but there still remained a step to take, and, while waiting, the persistence with which chlorate of potash was maintained in the pastes continued to produce burns and explosions, so much so that in certain states of Germany the new manufacture was for several years interdicted. It was then that a series of experiments was made which brought about, first the reduction of the proportion of chlorate, and finally its complete suppression, by substituting for it potassium nitrate (saltpetre) and manganese peroxide.

For every observer who possesses even elementary notions of chemistry, phosphorus is a truly extraordinary body and endowed with properties so special and exclusive that at first sight it seems illusory to seek its equivalent in industry. It is a marvelous and infallible agent to give at any moment, in all climates, in all latitudes, fire and light with a simplicity and a surety that no other process could equal.

Matches of white phosphorus answer, indeed, to every need. They ignite upon any surface whatever, without noise, without conflagration, without risk of explosion. Their manufacture is simple, easy, inexpensive. Covered with a protecting varnish, they defy inclemency, even humidity. The workman of the country as well as the city, the traveler, the hunter allured far from inhabited places, is always assured, with matches in his pocket, of being able to make a fire wherever he finds himself.

Is any other substance capable of offering the same advantages? No, assuredly; there is none which is comparable to it. There is no substitute for white phosphorus.

But it is a poison; it threatens workmen with the gravest dangers; it mutilates and kills them.

Let us see first of all why and how white phosphorus is so dangerous to handle.

White phosphorus is volatile; it diffuses, in the atmosphere of workshops where matches are being made, acrid and irritating vapors which darken the air. Penetrating into the respiratory passages, the vapors are slowly absorbed by the system, become fixed in the blood and the tissues, and produce there that particular state which has been designated by the name phosphorismus.

Phosphorismus represents the slow and chronic poisoning by phosphorus. All the workmen who are exposed to phosphorized vapors are doomed, with few exceptions, to phosphorismus, with this restriction, that its intensity varies according to the quantity of the vapors; so that in certain works, well arranged and carefully ventilated, if the totality of the vapors is drawn outside, phosphorismus can be reduced to zero.

The work is then in a state of complete salubrity.

Phosphorismus manifests itself by general phenomena and disturbances of the health easily recognizable. The workmen are pale, anemic, emaciated. They have a certain color of the skin, a color called icteric; their breath has the very odor of phosphorus. Investigation has shown that there is a very marked diminution in the proportion of mineral elements in the system—that what may be called the demineralization of the economy, and at the same time of the skeleton, is taking place.

This so grave a perturbation in the chemical composition of the bones explains certain cases of compound fracture with slow and defective consolidations among workers of phosphorus. This demineralization can be calculated, and if it be represented by a coefficient, you see that the figure it reaches compared with the normal state becomes the true criterion of phosphorismus.

But this is not all, and another still more startling phenomenon of this demineralization of the skeleton consists in the characteristic accident, most grave and at the same time most dramatic: necrosis of the jaw-bones, which the workmen have themselves qualified by the name of the chemical sickness.

It is a strange disease and one which appeared at first entirely unusual and inexplicable—a destruction of the bones of the face, a mortification of the maxillaries, which become detached in fragments in the midst of sores and abscesses of the mouth. The lesion has a singular tendency to extend and propagate itself; and it invades then even to the bones of the cranium, often entailing death, while those who live through it remain frightfully mutilated.

Nevertheless, in spite of the *cortège* of signal dangers accompanying it from its origin, the match industry had a prodigious extension. In Germany first, then in France, in Belgium, in England, and successively in all parts of Europe factories were established and, thanks to the *régime* of absolute liberty and to the absence of

all surveillance and all control, the installations came in all quarters into the most deplorable conditions. Matches were being made almost anywhere, in the workmen's lodgings, in the homes, in cellars; phosphorus was found in clothing, in the midst of food, within reach of children, and from this came fires and acute poisonings. The workmen, recruited from no matter where, and not looked after at all, were crowded together in insufficient habitations where the atmosphere was irrespirable.

The hospitals of Vienna, Berlin, and Nuremberg received the first necrosis patients, and, while the most celebrated physicians were studying the new malady, surgeons endeavored by early operations to arrest the march of the scourge. In France the alarm spread with the same rapidity; the first factories were almost all grouped in a suburb of Paris, La Villette, and in conditions as pitiable as those of Germany. The physicians ascertained with stupefaction the development of an unusual form of osseous mortification, and looked on powerless at the invasion of the destruction. Before this ignorance every idea of remedy remained illusory. Only the hygienists, in the common ignorance, were, at least upon a certain remedy, in perfect accord.

The cause is unknown; very well! but the morbid agent is white phosphorus. Consequently what could be more simple? Let us suppress phosphorus.

In France repeated unsuccessful attempts were made to have the use of white phosphorus prohibited by law, and at length a reward of ten thousand dollars was offered for the discovery of the best match without it. Unfortunately the different attempts presented a common fault, which became at the same time a peril: the new matches were explosive. Thus phosphorus came off conqueror in this new trial.

Doubtless one has not the right, in a period of discoveries and inventions such as that we are now traversing, to affirm that this famous substitute for white phosphorus, so much sought after even to the present time, will not be discovered to-morrow and that the ideal match will not appear tri-

umphant; but as long as such a result is delayed, it must not be forgotten that there are grave interests at stake, human existences threatened. The situation cannot then be further prolonged. There is spread abroad among the public, in the press, and among workmen an agitation and an emotion that has reached the highest degree. A solution is demanded; it must be sought and formulated.

We are in the presence of three solutions: (1) the legal prohibition of white phosphorus in the industry, (2) the employment of machines, (3) the application of hygiene.

The legal interdiction of white phosphorus is the radical solution; it makes the pathogenic agent disappear. But is this interdiction realizable? Here we do not hesitate to reply in the negative. No, to suppress the employment of white phosphorus is not possible in the present state of the match industry.

Of all the countries of Europe, one only has had to accept (by a law of 1874) the *régime* of the match without white phosphorus—Denmark, the native land of the match of amorphous phosphorus, called the Swedish match. Its inconveniences are known; they consist especially in that it does not ignite except upon a special surface which is coated with phosphorus, while the match bears only a mixture of chlorate. Furthermore, the phosphorus-coated surface under the least humidity is struck in vain; or it may lose its inflammable properties with use so that the last matches of a box do not find the phosphorus necessary for ignition.

These causes explain why its total consumption has remained so inferior compared with that of the ordinary match. White phosphorus continues to rule the industry. In England, in Italy, in Spain its manufacture is free; it is neither regulated nor watched.

In Switzerland the Federal Council passed a law in 1882 forbidding the employment of ordinary phosphorus, in all the works of the confederation. This law remained in effect for two entire years, at the end of which the experience appeared decisive, for the law

was repealed upon a recital of which the text is worth remembering: "The substitution of amorphous phosphorus for white phosphorus is industrially impossible."

The Belgian government was aroused in its turn, and the minister in 1895 prepared a bill prohibiting the employment of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches. However, before submitting the bill to Parliament, an inquiry was instituted, and the principal manufacturers of the kingdom were interrogated. The replies were invariable. The suppression of white phosphorus, they said, would deal a mortal blow to the Belgian industry. The bill had to be abandoned.

In France, without doubt, as everywhere else in Europe and in the entire world, the government will abandon the idea of interdiction; and our academies as well as our sanitary commissions, if they have the courage to reverse their decisions, will cease to make vows which cannot be executed.

Thus there is presented for consideration the second solution, which rests upon the employment of machines.

Numerous innovations have been for a long time applied to the operations reputed most unhealthful. One of the most dangerous parts of the work is moistening the matches with the inflammable paste. This was formerly performed, and is still performed in many countries, by the direct presentation of the press containing the matches to the slab covered with warm paste exhaling thick vapors. To-day the moistening is done by a roller. The roller occupies the center of a sort of cage, powerfully ventilated, at whose entrance a workman presents the press, which traverses the apparatus, passes upon the roller, and is received at the outlet by another workman, who directs it upon the dryers. The operation has thus become rapid and almost inoffensive.

Other automatic processes have been contrived for emptying the presses after the drying. But they can hardly be operated in a closed apparatus and hence do not succeed in withdrawing the workman from

the vapors which the matches disengage.

There is indeed one operation which machines cannot accomplish; that is sorting. Its amelioration consists only in the energetic ventilation of each workman's station. The boxing of the matches is effected by a machine very rapidly and without too much diffusion of foreign vapors.

But besides these machines of details, there is another which has been much considered recently—the American machine invented in Chicago, which accomplishes in itself the whole series of operations in match manufacture, even to the boxing. The machine is from sixty-five to eighty feet long, with an endless sheet-iron plate carrying the matches to be coated. The different parts of the apparatus are in the open air and watched by several sets of workmen. It seems rather difficult to enclose the machine so that no emanations will be diffused outside. It thus remains a source of vapors which are collected and condensed into a relatively restricted space. Only one advantage seems to contribute toward the prevention of disease: the number of employees is reduced to a third or a quarter of the ordinary number.

This machine seems called upon to realize considerable progress and would facilitate the selection of a limited personnel.

We are now in the presence of the third solution, that by hygiene. We shall see that it is at the same time the only truly scientific and rational one.

Phosphorismus is the slow and chronic poisoning of the workman by the noxious emanations of the workshops; then these emanations must be suppressed. The task is here perhaps a little more difficult than for other industries in which the gases or vapors are less dense and of less diverse composition. But the present systems of aeration and ventilation are of extreme variety and almost unlimited energy. Sometimes there is employed the simple draft of ventilators placed at the top of buildings and often sufficient to draw away the gases lighter than air; sometimes recourse is had to mechanical ventilation by vapor, applied not only to the atmosphere of a workshop,

but to each workman's isolated station. The Blackmann system, based upon this principle, has been administratively imposed upon all the works of Belgium, and has given the best results.

There is another system of ventilation which ought to be noted; it is Geneste and Herscher's machine for inhalation by the injection of air, which has succeeded in certain industries and in some industrial laboratories in carrying away the most dangerous gases.

The getting rid of deleterious gases by neutralization has also been attempted. A first effort in this direction rests upon the employment of extract of turpentine, to which is attributed the property of stopping the oxidation by free air of the vapors of phosphorus. Confidence in this means has remained such in certain manufactories that extract holders are placed upon the work-tables, and each workman, in addition, carries at his neck a flask containing the supposed neutralizer.

Necrosis rests not only upon phosphorismus but it implies another condition, the previous existence with the workman of a certain lesion of the jaws and dentition, known as dental caries, a common lesion ordinarily, but one which plays here an important and decisive part. Dental caries is the entrance door for the chemical sickness; without it, no necrosis.

The preventive in this case is one of extreme simplicity. There must not be allowed to enter a match factory nor be maintained there at any price a workman bearing a single lesion of this nature.

To sum up, in the ideal manufactory of white phosphorus matches, the workshops are large and roomy, as the cubature of air is proportioned to the number of workmen; the mechanical ventilation is complete, so that no vapor of phosphorus penetrates into the atmosphere; a visible reagent does not disclose pressure of vapors and implies only insignificant traces of them; the force of employees is the object of a selection upon entrance, practiced with most complete rigor, and periodical selection assures the maintenance of the same conditions.

THE SON OF A TORY.

BY CLINTON SCOLLARD.

BRING THE EXPERIENCES OF WILTON AUDREY IN THE MOHAWK VALLEY AND ELSEWHERE, DURING THE SUMMER OF 1777, NOW FOR THE FIRST TIME EDITED FROM PRIVATE PAPERS.

CHAPTER XIII.

A PERILOUS VENTURE.

THE night proved most auspicious for our undertaking. The tumbled masses that hid the stars were of a murky hue, and a sobbing wind was stirring among the trees. It was hard upon midnight when we crept out of the sally-port, and began making our way cautiously toward the river. A short distance up the stream I recalled having seen some logs floating in an eddy near the bank, and thither we bent our steps with the intention of using the timber to assist us in crossing to the other side. Several years previous there had been a sawmill in existence near by, and the logs were undoubtedly some that had been hewn and floated down, but found too defective for use.

Without incident we gained the point sought. Here we divested ourselves of coats, breeches, and foot-gear, each one of us fastening his possessions to a piece of the water-logged timber. Thus we pushed from the bank, the colonel and Lieutenant Stockwell taking the lead. We could but faintly distinguish the outline of the opposite shore, so black was the night. Not a sound did we hear save the sough of the wind and the hoarse murmur of the current. For some reason the Indians were silent. It was our plan, after crossing the river, to strike for a distance to the north of the stream, then to return, and follow its course to the settlement.

At first we had little difficulty in keeping near one another, but in mid-current a strong swirl separated me from my companions. My log, being heavily water-soaked, proved hard to manage, and when I reached the shore I had no idea where the colonel and Lieutenant Stockwell had landed. The bank was slippery with slime, and after having floundered noisily in one spot in my attempt

to find them I concluded that rather than further endanger my safety by still endeavoring to discover their whereabouts I would better strike out for myself. I selected what seemed a likely place to gain the land, and was crawling noiselessly up out of the water when my hand fell upon the bow of an Indian canoe. I had chanced upon one of the points of communication between the two shores.

In an instant my plans were changed. I decided that I would appropriate the canoe and follow the river to the settlement. I groped about but could not find the paddle. While I was considering what I should do I heard footsteps approaching. There was nothing left but to take to the river again. This I did, drawing the canoe after me. If I could not avail myself of it, I could at least prevent another from putting it to use, perhaps to my peril.

The current took me swiftly away from the spot. With one arm I gripped fast upon the log, and with the other kept firm hold on the canoe. I soon realized, however, that this method of procedure was impracticable. It was impossible for me, while in the water, to transfer my clothes, which were bound tightly to the log, to the canoe, and without a paddle the little craft was useless; so, although not without regret, I let it slip from my grasp. I now conceived the bold idea of keeping in mid-stream, and drifting past Sir John Johnson's camp and the redoubt he had erected on the river-bank to guard the carrying-place. I felt confident that even the sharpest-eyed sentry would discover nothing suspicious in a log floating with the current, if, indeed, in the thick gloom he saw it at all.

For a time I was favored of fortune. In fact I was about congratulating myself that I was safe, when my log encountered a snag and became so wedged among the debris

collected by the obstruction that I began to despair of getting it loose. I could hear a sentry pacing his beat upon the bank, and consequently had to be most guarded in my endeavors to free my tree-trunk pilot. I was on the point of abandoning it, when, by a supreme last effort I succeeded in parting it from the rest of the mass of wreckage and went drifting on again unobserved.

I now began to feel the effects of my long immersion, and yet I did not dare to leave the river. I was fully a third of a mile from the carrying-place before I ventured to quit the stream, and then it was with difficulty that I could pull myself upon the bank, so exhausted was I. Unfastening my clothes from the log, I took a deep draught from the flask I had had the forethought to bring with me. This set my blood stirring. I wrung out my dripping undergarments, reclad myself, took another swallow of spirits, and set out to seek the Albany road, for I had risked landing on the south side of the river.

It was not long before I found the rough highway which had been cut through during the French and Indian War, and over this I went stumbling blindly and weakly, intent on putting between myself and the fort as great a distance as might be before dawn.

As I paused where the road dipped into a swale, just as the night was lifting, I detected the foul odor of carrion. The sickening smell grew when I began descending, and presently, with a startling swish of wings and a furious clamor, a great flock of crows swept upward to the hemlock tops. Upon the scene of what dread tragedy was I advancing? I hesitated, but considering that if I turned back and sought another route I might lose myself in the wilderness, I pressed resolutely forward. As I reached the base of the declivity where the road—logs laid in the mire—crossed the swamp land, a wolf with an angry snarl sprang from my path into the tangled thicket.

I could see but dimly, yet I now knew that I had come upon the battle-field, the spot where Herkimer and his men had encountered Sir John Johnson and the Indians. Before me was heaped a pile of corpses,

friends and foes who had expired in the death grapple. Here lay one who had fallen face downward in the swale, only his legs being visible; there was stretched another whose head and shoulders only showed. When the grisly horror of it all smote me, a temporary strength was infused into my tottering limbs. I leaped over the prostrate forms, I fled up the opposite slope, panting, straining, as though all the fabled fiends of the under-world were at my heels. But this effort was the last desperate brightening of a dying flame. I blundered from the roadway into the woods, reeled a few paces among the trees, caught my foot upon a projecting root, and fell at full length, unconscious.

When I recovered my senses the sun was high above me. Every bone in my body ached, and my head snapped with pain. I crawled into the sunlight, propped myself against a mossy hillock, and lay there for hours with closed eyes. The sun-bath seemed to do me good, for late in the afternoon my head ceased throbbing, and my joints were a trifle less stiff. The nausea which I had experienced on awakening also left me, and I was able to partake sparingly of the cheese and hard biscuit which I had brought with me. I discovered a spring, too, near by, and the copious draughts I had from it helped to relieve my distress.

Further progress that day, however, was out of the question, so I set about making myself as comfortable as possible for the night. From the scrub hemlocks I cut a great heap of boughs, and, burrowed among these, I slept restfully and soundly. I was much encouraged the next morning to find how little soreness remained in my limbs, and after breakfasting (I managed to eke out my meal with blackberries, which grew about me in abundance) I set out toward the settlement, having first cut a stout hickory staff to prop my steps.

I made a brave start, but soon discovered that I had little endurance. So frequently was I obliged to pause for rest that when sunset came I had traversed little more than ten miles. The place I selected for my night's encampment was a willow copse close

to a ford in the Mohawk, and not very far distant from the site of the present growing town of Utica. Very near there was a clearing on the river-bank used as a camping place by voyagers to Fort Stanwix and the West and North. I was debating whether I could with safety start a fire, when I was startled and astonished to hear the murmur of voices. Creeping to the edge of the clearing I was just in time to see appear from the direction of Fort Stanwix a dozen or more white men and nearly as many Indians. The leader of the party was Walter Butler, the son of Colonel Butler, at this time a lieutenant in the "Rangers," and later one of the most bitter and cruel of all the Tory leaders. Much to my surprise, and not a little to my regret, I discovered that my quondam companion and friend, Schroepel, was acting as guide to the expedition. That they were bent upon some sort of mischief I had no doubt, and I resolved to thwart them if I could.

From my hiding-place I watched them make hasty preparations for supper. As luck would have it, during their meal Butler, Schroepel, and several others sat within ear-shot, and I was able to catch bits of their talk.

"You know this man Shoemaker?" I heard Butler say. "There's no doubt about his loyalty?"

"Not the slightest," answered Schroepel. "His house is a mile and a half, or thereabouts, from the settlement, as I have before told you, and is just the place for a meeting. No one will dream of our presence there."

"And you think the gathering will be a large one?"

"I am sure of it. Our coming has been announced to all sympathizers with the king's cause by the most trusty messengers. The affair will be a great success."

"Certainly the proclamation should influence any who are halting between two courses of action."

"Aye! it should, and will, if there chance to be any such present."

Here a third broke in with something that failed to reach me, and I could not

gather the drift of what followed. Soon, however, Butler turned to Schroepel again.

"Eight is the hour for the rendezvous, I think you said."

"Yes. It seemed best to wait until dusk, though there's not the slightest danger of an interruption."

"We shall not need to make an early start, then."

"No, we had better not. Midday will be quite soon enough. We are much less likely to be observed here than in the vicinity of Shoemaker's."

This was all I cared to know. I stole from the spot, and when I finally stretched myself out for the night I was half a mile distant from the Tory and Indian encampment.

It was five o'clock on the following afternoon that I came within sight of the houses of the settlement. So worn was I that I could hardly drag one foot after the other. My appearance was ragged and unkempt, and I realized that I looked like a veritable outcast. I was anxious, for the present, to escape recognition, so I pulled my hat over my eyes, kept my gaze upon the ground, and effected a limp that was anything but natural to me. The scraggly growth of beard upon my face assisted in the disguise.

A settler whom I knew slightly met me at the outskirts of the settlement, and took me for one of Herkimer's force who had been left for dead and was making his belated way homeward. It was from the lips of this man that I learned the brave general was still living, though sorely wounded, and had not been slain in battle, as Colonel Belinger and Major Frey had reported. Alas, that he was not destined to recover, but was fated to lose his life at the hands of a bungling surgeon!

After I had passed unrecognized through the first encounter I took courage, and went more boldly forward. Fortunately the afternoon was sultry, and there were few folk abroad.

Without further challenge I reached the fort. Here I felt more at ease, for I was quite unknown save possibly by name. To the guard at the gateway who demanded my

business I replied that I wished to see the commander of the post. The fellow looked at me suspiciously, which caused me no surprise. However, he summoned an officer who chanced to be within hail, and as the latter drew near I addressed him.

"I have important news for your commandant," I said. "Will you take me to him at once?"

"Whence do you come?" he asked.

"From Fort Stanwix."

"Ah! then you are the young man of whom Colonel Willett spoke."

"Yes, I left Fort Stanwix with the colonel and Lieutenant Stockwell. Are they here now?"

"No, they went on toward Albany this morning to meet General Arnold, who is marching to the relief of the fort."

I was shown into the presence of the commanding officer, Colonel Weston, who, when I revealed to him my identity, was exceedingly gracious to me.

"Colonel Willett and Lieutenant Stockwell feared that the most serious of all mishaps had befallen you, Mr. Aubrey—that you had fallen into the hands of the Indians."

"I should certainly not care to repeat my experience," I said, "though I was at no time in actual danger of being captured."

I then related to him my adventures. His face glowed with satisfaction when I told him how I had overheard the plans of Butler and his companions.

"We'll prepare a little surprise for the lieutenant; eh, Mr. Aubrey?" cried the colonel. "I suppose you wouldn't mind taking part in the surprise after you have rested a bit and had some dinner? And, by the by, you look as though dinner were the thing of which you were most in need."

"I have been doing a hermit's penance for two days and a half," I answered, "and feel as though a change to the part of the returned prodigal would be most agreeable."

He laughed merrily at this, and bade me be his guest. When I sat down at the plain yet plentiful board a brush and a razor had wrought a decided change in my outward appearance, and when I rose there was quite as great a change in the inner man.

"I must see this affair through," I thought, "for I cannot well avoid it, and then—Margaret!"

CHAPTER XIV.

AT SHOEMAKER'S.

PROMPTLY at eight o'clock I left the fort in company with fifty men under command of Captain Borring, the officer who had conducted me to Colonel Weston. He proved to be a cheery fellow, with a lively fancy for an adventure; one who entered thoroughly into the spirit of our undertaking.

"We'll give them an opportunity to become fully engrossed in their counsels," he said, "and then walk in and take them red-handed, as it were."

This was exactly my idea of procedure. I had already told the colonel that I knew of a spot adjoining Shoemaker's where our men could conceal themselves until it seemed best to advance and surround the house. This fact I now communicated to the captain. There was, in the rear of the farm-buildings, a shallow gully filled with a brawling brook in spring, but perfectly dry in midsummer. The edge of this depression was fringed with a rank growth of weeds and a few clumps of elder bushes. Making a detour, and marching quickly, we entered the gully at some distance from the Shoemaker residence, moved quietly down it, and were in hiding, all within half an hour.

Captain Borring and I at once crept forward to reconnoiter. It soon became evident that the Tories did not dream of being disturbed, for they had not even taken the precaution to set the Indians on guard. Apparently the whole company was within.

While we stood watching the house from the shelter of a wood-pile, a late comer arrived, and we discovered that there was a sentinel stationed at the door. As the light streamed out, when the late arrival was admitted, it fell upon the figure of the sentinel. I recognized the man immediately. It was Schroepel.

I had previously made up my mind, were he captured with the others, that I would intercede with Colonel Weston in his behalf,

for I would not have it supposed that I was so ungrateful as to have forgotten the debt I owed him. Here, however, might be an opportunity to allow him to escape, provided I could prevail upon him to accept the chance. I resolved to try.

"I will keep my eye on the house," I said to Captain Borring, "if you will bring up the men."

"Very well," he answered.

"If for any reason I find it desirable to change my position, what signal will you give on your return?"

"I will whistle twice."

"And I will reply, if everything is ready for our seizure."

As soon as he had gone I slipped from the wood-pile to the well-sweep, and thence to the corner of the house. Passing with all possible haste around the building, I reappeared at the corner whence one coming from the highway would naturally approach. Stepping briskly toward the door, I exclaimed in a muffled voice as I drew near:

"I am sorry to be late!"

"Your name, sir," said Schroepel.

I halted as he spoke, perhaps ten feet distant from him.

"Mr. Schroepel, is it not?" I asked.

"Yes," he answered. "And who may you be?"

"One who would have a word with you before he enters," I replied, still disguising my voice.

"Well, out with it!" he exclaimed.

"Not here," I said, "it might look suspicious should another arrive."

I led the way to the further end of the house, and he followed me unhesitatingly. Here I removed my hat and spoke naturally.

"Don't you know me?" I asked.

"By God, it's Aubrey!" he cried. "How come you here? They told me you had deserted."

"It's true," I cried. "I'll be frank. My heart was never with the king's cause. It was on my father's account I joined."

"And you were a Whig all along?"

"Yes."

"Then why, in heaven's name, are you—" He stopped short. The reason for my pres-

ence dawned upon him. "Damnation!" he almost shouted in his rage. "You've got us trapped."

"Hush!" I cried, grasping his arm. "There are fifty armed men within call. In two minutes—three at the most—the house will be surrounded. Now the way is clear. You see I haven't forgotten that you did me a good turn once. At last we are quits. Quick, go!"

"Go, and leave my friends unwarned? That's not old Schroepel's way, young man," said he, and tried to push by me.

"You are in the enemy's country," said I, "and were you caught it might be hard to prove that you were not a spy. They hang spies."

At that instant, low, yet distinct, came Captain Borring's signal. Schroepel wavered, swore under his breath, then seized my hand.

"I like you, anyhow," he said, "if you have bested us. Good-by. You have seen the last of old Schroepel."

And so he vanished in the night, nor indeed did I ever put eyes upon him, or hear aught of him, again. But I still keep his rough presence green in my memory, for despite his prejudices and uncouth ways he was true at heart, and a friend.

Schroepel gone, I hastened to answer Captain Borring's signal, and the house was speedily encompassed.

"Has the sentinel stepped within?" asked the captain as we paused before the door.

"No," I replied, "he took to his heels."

"Ah!" said he, "how did that happen?"

I did not know in what manner he would receive my news, yet I was determined not to deceive him.

"I was in his debt," I answered, "and deeply. There seemed to be a chance of squaring accounts, and I took advantage of it. He was, after all, only a poor instrument. The leading spirits are within."

"I don't blame you," said the captain, and never afterward did he mention the matter.

Everything now being in readiness, Captain Borring threw back the door, and stalked through a narrow entrance into the room where the gathering was assembled, I

pressing close at his heels. Lieutenant Butler was in the midst of his harangue, exhorting his listeners to submit to royal authority, and urging them to send a deputation to Fort Stanwix advising the garrison to surrender.

For a moment there was the wildest confusion. Cries and oaths were mingled, and some who had weapons drew them.

"Gentlemen," shouted Captain Borring above the din, "it is useless to resist. The house is surrounded. We have a troop here from the fort."

A hush now fell upon the crowd. Looks of dismay and chagrin showed on many faces, while on others there was an expression of stoical indifference. But as my countenance began to be recognized there arose renewed exclamations of anger and indignation. I heard the word "traitor" hissed at me from all sides, and had not Captain Borring, pistol in hand, taken his place at my side serious bodily violence might have been done me.

"I suppose we have you to thank for this!" sneered Butler, coming toward me menacingly.

"No," I answered, "you may thank your own carelessness. The woods sometimes have ears, and if foolish people will talk, why, what can you expect?"

"It was an ill hour when the Slanting Waters gave you back to life," said one who lived in the vicinity, and who shared the general belief at the settlement that I was dead. The sentiment he expressed seemed to be unanimous, but I was not cast down thereat.

Those from the neighborhood who had answered the call issued by Sir John and Colonels Claus and Butler were allowed to depart, with the admonition that they keep the peace. The others, Butler with his troop and the Indians, were marched away to the fort to await the arrival of General Arnold, and the action of the court-martial.

CHAPTER XV.

MARGARET.

At the fork in the valley road I took leave of Captain Borring. I had been much pre-

occupied on our return march, answering the captain's sallies at haphazard, and no doubt he was glad enough to be rid of me. In truth, now that I considered my duty done, my mind was too full of my beloved to admit of any other thoughts. Had her health further declined since Demooth left the settlement? Should I be able to see her that night? How should I manage to reveal myself to her and to her mother without causing them alarm? These questions passed through my brain, but instead of pausing to consider any plan of action I only hastened on the faster.

In the southeast the light of the rising moon was beginning to give to the fleecy clouds a faint silvery glow. The locusts were still rasping in the stubble, but save for their rhythmic though strident noise there was a great calm over the earth and in the sky.

I went forward, hat in hand, letting the refreshing night air play about my temples, my breast filled with conflicting emotions—with courage and with fear, with the gravest misgivings and with the fondest hopes. As I rounded a turn in the highway, I saw, but a few yards distant, a man with bowed head coming toward me. He could not have heard my footsteps, for the dust deadened them, yet something made him conscious of my presence, and as he straightened his figure to its full height I knew it was Heinrich Hauff.

So full had my mind been of Margaret that the possibility of meeting her brother that night had not occurred to me, though previously I had often wondered in what manner we should greet when we did for the first time encounter. That we should eventually be friends I had no doubt, now that Hauff understood my motives, but I could not deny to myself the probable awkwardness and constraint of our first coming together.

The moment I recognized the advancing figure I stood stock still. I would have avoided him until after I had seen Margaret had I been given my choice, but here he was before me, and I had no option. He came on a pace or two, then he likewise

paused, and we peered at each other through the vague light. He fancied that he saw in me a resemblance to one he thought dead, and the resemblance startled him. The fact, too, that I had halted as though to bar his way was not without its effect upon him. There was not a grain of superstition in Hauff's make-up; he would have scoffed at the idea of a ghost, yet I truly believe (although he would never confess it) that a fleeting sense of something supernatural was at that instant present in his mind. His hesitation, however, was but brief. Presently he moved a few steps toward me.

"In God's name, what man are you?" he exclaimed.

"One whom you would have for an enemy against his will," I returned.

He came nearer, incredulously, and I saw that his right arm was in a sling.

"Wilton Aubrey must have had a brother," he said, not seeming to comprehend me, "for, by heaven, you are his double!"

"He had—he has no brother," I answered. "Don't you see that I am he?"

"Not unless the age of miracles has returned," he cried, still unconvinced. "Do you think I can believe that Wilton Aubrey is alive when his drowning cries are still ringing in my ears?"

"My dear Hauff," I said laughing, "you never heard his drowning cries, for while you were listening to what you supposed were those sounds he was lying concealed beneath the bank just behind you."

"Aubrey," he exclaimed, "I'm my own man again! Can you overlook the past? Can you forgive the wrong I did you? Will you give me your hand? I promise I'll be as true a friend as I was a bitter enemy."

"As there's a sky above us," I said, taking his proffered hand, "I cherish no unkind feeling toward you."

At that we began walking onward together, plying one another with eager questions, he in regard to my adventures since the night by the Slanting Waters, I in regard to Margaret. I learned incidentally that he had been in the battle at Oriskany, and had there been wounded, which accounted for his useless arm.

"You had best let me go forward and try to break your coming to my mother," Hauff said, as we approached the house.

"But Margaret—" I began.

"Margaret was above stairs when I left my mother a few moments ago," he observed sadly. "I'll not go in if she is below."

There was that in his tone and manner which told me the man had changed. His experience with his sister, to whom he was deeply attached, had touched the soft spot in his somewhat rough nature.

The warm August moon was now flooding the landscape with its light. As we passed in front of the house to the gateway, I fancied I caught a glimpse of Margaret's face at one of the upper windows, though the only sign of life came from the open hallway where the reflection of a pale flame showed.

"Mother!" It was the excited voice of my beloved.

"Mother," she cried again, and I heard her feet upon the stair.

"Yes, dear," her mother answered, coming from a rear room into the hallway.

"I have seen Wilton!" By this time she was at the door, gazing toward me standing alone in the open gateway, for Hauff, at the sound of his sister's footsteps, had moved on a few paces to the shade of a great elm.

Her keen eye had indeed seen me, for I had been walking on the inside, and strangely the sight of me had not alarmed her. An instant she paused in the doorway, while her mother endeavored to calm her, not so much as looking out to discover if any one were visible; then, with a glad cry that brought tears of joy to my eyes, she sprang down the path to meet me, and in another second I had folded her, alternately laughing and sobbing, to my breast. Then her mother approached timidly and touched me, as though to assure herself that I had actually returned in the flesh, and presently we went into the house, they too full of wonder, and I of happiness, to speak a word.

But ere long our lips were unsealed, and then what a flood of talk was unloosed!

While we were in the midst of multitudinous questions there was a soft step on the threshold, and Hauff came slowly, almost timidly, into the room. Margaret greeted him without a trace of her past antipathy.

"It was all a bad dream, Heinrich," she said. "Now we have awakened, and know it was not true."

And so, far into the night, the four of us sat and talked, the dear girl's hand ever in mine, and her sweet eyes ever on my face.

A few days later, when General Arnold and his army arrived, I renewed my ac-

quaintance with Colonel Willett and Lieutenant Stockwell, both of whom I had the pleasure of presenting to Margaret. The ingenious ruse by which Fort Stanwix was relieved is a matter of history, and a record of it would be out of place in the memoirs of a private gentleman.

There is, then, but one more matter which calls for mention—a quiet wedding which took place in mid-September, when the unselfish and patriotic Samuel Kirkland tarried a few days at the settlement on his return from a mission to Congress to resume his chaplaincy at Fort Stanwix.

(The end.)

COLLEGE THEATRICALS AND GLEE CLUBS.

BY EDITH CARRUTH.

THE man who goes to college and does not become a member of some secret society as soon as he has proved himself worthy by running the gamut of "hazings" is rarer than the proverbial white blackbird. He finds it necessary to be identified with at least one, if he would have any part in social life at college, and no matter how poor he may be, or how hard he may be working to pay his way through the university, some few of his dollars find their way to a society coffer, and he appears in its rooms. While on the surface these clubs may seem but an added expense to college life, and but one thing more to divert a man from his books, they are really an incalculable advantage. The average freshman, comparatively speaking, knows none of his own class and but few in any other. He has to make himself known and establish himself, as it were. Alone it would take the greater part of the term to accomplish that which, by joining a society, he does in a few weeks, and it is but a short time after his entrance that he has a large set of acquaintances, has picked his friends from among those who are most congenial to him, and forms one of a coterie that keeps together through college, forming ties

that sometimes last during life, and at least are always remembered with pleasure.

No matter how small or poor a society may be, it has its own room or set of rooms. Some of the richer ones own their houses, but in either case it is the rendezvous of the members, where the men drop in and meet with greater frequency than they would ever call at each others' chambers, and where all manner of things are discussed and varied and original lights thrown on any topic that may be started.

College societies have the regular diversions for their members that any simple social clubs have. There are the papers, magazines, music, and games, and with these and gossip the hours are whiled away. But like any set of original young minds they demand certain other healthy and timely amusement, and out of this demand has grown the organization of glee and theatrical clubs. The theatrical clubs have, in every case, originated in secret society gatherings, and some have attained almost national reputations; the "Hasty Pudding" of Harvard, and the "Mask and Wig" of the University of Pennsylvania probably stand first, while "The Strollers" of Columbia are well known in New York, with

Princeton and Cornell coming rapidly to the front with the clubs they are sending out.

Until very recently Harvard was known as the college where the drama flourished, just as Yale is now regarded as the "singing" college, and the fame of the "Pudding's" theatricals still lives from the years they gave performances in New York. But within two years President Eliot of Harvard, who is bitterly opposed to publicity in college societies, forbade any performances which required the principals' absence over night from Cambridge, and so struck a hard blow not only to theatricals but to the musical clubs as well. Since then the Pudding plays only in Boston, but with all the old zest and enthusiasm that characterized the performance of "Fair Rosemond" in New York in 1879.

That year was the first in which college theatricals had ever been brought before the public as being anything but a "lark" for the participants, but "Fair Rosemond" was given with a care and elaborateness of detail that brought the Pudding preeminently to the fore. In 1882, when the same club, but composed of different members, gave "Dido Æneas" in New York, it had the distinction of introducing the ballet into college theatricals. In the light of later developments it is interesting to know that "Dido" was written by Owen Wister, now so well known as a story-writer. The D. K. E.'s, or "Dickeys," as they are commonly called, give plays of no mean merit, and the policy of construction and management is followed by both societies, as it is indeed by all others, with slight variations.

The Hasty Pudding, which is a typical college society made up of representative men and may be taken as an illustration, by general consent selects one member who is to write the play. This in itself is an honor, for they choose the man whom they consider the cleverest and most original, and he is at once put on his mettle. The plays are always burlesques with "song and dance" interspersed, and they teem with timely "gags," puns, and wit of the sort that appeals to college men and their audiences. The Pudding burlesques were

usually built on plots (?) of Burnand of London *Punch*, but by the time they had passed through the adapter's hands, and were further embellished by whatever originality the cast possessed, it is safe to say that the author could never recognize the child of his pen.

The play being written, a "play committee," usually of three men, is appointed by the club, and the management is wholly in their hands. They first issue a notice that on a certain evening the cast will be selected. Any member is at liberty to apply for a part, and the selection lies in the committee's discrimination. It is not at all uncommon for a man to throw up a part after two or three rehearsals, finding it either more work than he expected, or that he is *persona non grata*. His place is at once filled and rehearsals proceed. They are under the direction of the committee, who, for the last rehearsals and the performances, sometimes call in a professional "coach," but this is at their own option. Rehearsals take place usually once a week at first, and later with greater frequency, until at the last they are on every night. A man is always fined for "cutting," and if that fails to make him regular in attendance he is dropped. The principals and chorus—there is always a chorus—do not rehearse together until toward the end, but rehearsals are always occasions of great hilarity and other members are not admitted. Whatever originality a man may put into a part is always hailed with approval, and under the inspiration of the moment many a "gag" is heard at the first performance that was not before thought of.

Beginning it in the winter, it is not until late in the spring that the play is given. It has been urged against college theatricals that they take too much of the student's time from the serious side of his life, but when it is taken into consideration that months are allowed for preparation, and that during weeks of examinations rehearsals are practically stopped, it will be seen in the end that a man takes no more time from his books than if he were making calls or going to parties. Harvard is the only college that

does not encourage theatricals among the students, and there they are discouraged solely because of President Eliot's personal attitude.

The Pudding, and all other societies that give public performances, make up a list of patronesses for the play, composed of representative society women in the cities where the burlesque is given. The more there are the better, as they not only insure social prestige, but, what is perhaps more to the point, a certain financial return is guaranteed by each woman's taking a given number of tickets, which she either distributes among her friends or uses in making up parties.

At the dress rehearsal, held in some available place, members are admitted, and in the meantime the play committee, whose post is no empty honor, has hired a hall or theater for the performances, looked after the printing of tickets and programs, called on the women who are desired as patronesses, inspected costumes and arranged scenery, and engaged a professional "maker-up," to whose skilful hands the men owe the graceful forms of girls that later send the audiences into bursts of laughter of keenest appreciation. This difference in outward semblance is not the least amusing thing connected with college theatricals, and to see a man admiring his feminine form, or trying to get accustomed to it as he flirts his skirts, is calculated to bring a smile from the most pronounced misogynist.

The number of performances varies from three to six, and the expenses incurred are paid from the receipts. What surplus there may be is donated to the boat crew, that impecunious set that has no way of making money for itself and is the beneficiary of many a college entertainment.

Another set of societies which, while social, make that side of secondary importance, are the musical clubs—the glee, the mandolin, and the banjo. They exist in every college, while Harvard has one that is unique: the "Piorean Sodality." The Sodality is an orchestra composed wholly of string and wind instruments, and is under the management of a president

and a leader, who conduct it on the same principles that govern other musical societies.

Harvard's glee can hold its own with any other, but owing to touring being impossible it is comparatively little heard of. Yale's glee is probably better known than any other, for their tours are more extended, and as a consequence more advertised.

Yale has always been a singing college, and it is a tradition there that the glee club grew out of the students' custom of congregating about a fence surrounding a field and singing choruses. The oldest alumnus cannot remember when the club was not in existence.

A good voice is not the only qualification necessary for admission to the club. It is required that a man shall have social standing, or at least be one who may be introduced socially without bringing discredit to the other members.

Shortly after college opens a notice appears in the *Yale News* that applicants for admission to the glee club may present themselves on a certain evening at Calliope Hall. There the voices are tried by a musician familiarly known as "Shep," and accepted or rejected, as the case may be. It matters not if the applicant has no special technical knowledge of music; if his voice and ear are correct he quickly learns all that is necessary. The membership is limited to twenty or twenty-two, and the list being filled rehearsals are at once begun under the direction of "Shep."

A man once elected remains in the glee club throughout the college course, and it is only because of graduation that vacancies occur, unless indeed a member is expelled, which rarely happens. There is no assessment in the club, the running expenses, which are few, being paid from the proceeds of the concerts. Those deducted, the greater part of the surplus is devoted to what is known as the "Poor Students' Fund." Just what is done with the fund, and who disburses it, is not generally known, and the greatest care is taken to preserve its secrecy. A portion of the concert returns are made over to the boat crew, besides the entire receipts of the

one given in New York City in the spring.

The voices being picked, rehearsals are called three times a week with the club, but it is not until a few weeks before Christmas that the new men formally become members through election by a majority of votes. During this initial course a man may be found ineligible, from some personal reason, or because his voice is not what it was believed to be, and he is then quietly dropped and his place filled. The same man may apply for admission at the beginning of each term, and it is not at all uncommon that one who has been once or twice rejected may be found eligible and desirable in his junior or senior year. All through the college year rehearsals are regularly held and strictly attended, and woe betide the man who attempts to "cut," for he is fined for non-attendance and at last dropped for continued absence.

The president is elected by the members a year in advance, and is chosen because of his popularity in the club. Him they rely upon to sustain the dignity and position of which they are so proud, and he, realizing his obligation, fulfils it with the inward hope that his fame may descend among the "undergrads" as the most popular president the club ever had. The office has practically no business connected with it; that is attended to by the business manager, who is appointed solely because of his executive ability, and is rarely a member of the club. He in turn is given a secretary, who looks after the correspondence, runs errands, and makes himself generally useful to his chief. The manager plans their tours, makes dates and engagements, hires halls or theaters, and has the same relation to the club that the business manager of a theatrical troupe has toward his company. He does the drudgery, and draws a salary.

The club makes two tours annually, beginning in the winter, when, during the Christmas holidays, it goes as far west as Denver, stopping at the principal cities on the way. Before leaving the college all detail of the trip is planned, and the manager issues his orders like a general.

A notice is posted in the club office of the

hour they are to leave town, and every man must be at the station on time. They travel in two special cars, and on entering a city each member is assigned to his hotel, where arrangements have already been made for their reception. This "advance work," as it may be called, is done by an alumnus. The manager in planning the tour has a list of Yale men who have recently graduated. To one of them in each city he writes, asking what are the prospects of giving a successful concert there and whether the graduate will make the arrangements. When the reply is favorable the alumnus looks after the advertising, hires a hall, and organizing himself into a reception committee of one, but frequently accompanied by chums, meets the club at the station.

Before separating at their hotels orders are issued to rendezvous at the place of entertainment some time before the hour of the concert. The club is always met by a number of invitations to teas, dinners, etc., and these come within the province of the president. Following the advice of the graduate he decides which shall be accepted and which regretted, and then makes known his wishes. The men by that time have become so accustomed to doing as they are told that when they hear that certain of them are to go to Mrs. Jones-Smith's tea, and the others to Mrs. Robinson-Brown's, they array themselves in all meekness of spirit and start forth to the separate functions. And they like them! Let it not be thought they go in any martyrlike spirit! What mortal college man but revels in meeting pretty maidens and hearing sweet words of praise from girlish lips—of how charming the concert was the night before, or how impatient they are for the evening and the joy in store!

From the bevy of fascinating damsels the glee-club man tears himself away, rushes back to the hotel to eat dinner with an appetite entirely ruined by the tea and cakes he has absorbed, and getting into his dress clothes hurries to the hall to report before the concert. Whether the very tired but altogether jolly crowd of college men leaves town that night depends upon the distance

they are to go, and the date of the next concert, but they travel quite like a professional company.

Yale has too what is called the "second" glee club, which has its own president, but which has practically become part of the first. It makes no tours of the country but sings about the college. If for some reason a man is dropped from the first club his place is filled from the second, and in a way it is a waiting list for the older organization.

The tour that the club makes of the country not only reimburses the "Poor Students' Fund" and the crew, but it also serves to bring the college to the notice of people and places who are too far removed from the *alma mater* to be particularly interested until made aware of it in some such way as this. This is so well understood by colleges that tours are encouraged, though never in any way that might lay the university open to criticism, or detract from its dignity. But undoubtedly this fact has much to do with President Eliot's refusal to permit Harvard clubs to travel.

In the Easter vacation the club makes its second trip, going south to Fortress Monroe, and stopping in Washington, Baltimore, or Philadelphia, and New York.

A description of Yale's glee applies equally to those of other colleges, for any difference lies only in detail of management.

Secret society theatricals where the tickets are not sold, as at Yale, which may serve as a case in point, are conducted on different principles from those like Harvard's, that are public. At the former they are really secret society diversions and only members are allowed to see them.

Each society selects a "play committee" of five or six men, each of whom is required to write or adapt a play or opera to be acted by the committee. The members are assessed for the expenses and the supper, which invariably follows the performance in the society rooms. Each member may bring one or two friends, not more, and the fun waxes fast and furious. It is the chance of a lifetime for a man to display originality,

and jokes, puns, and topical songs abound in a quantity to make a professional vaudeville manager wring his hands in envy. The plays are really elaborately costumed and set; expense would seem to be of no consideration, and each committee man exerts all his powers to eclipse those which have preceded him.

The D. K. E. and Psi U., two of the best known college fraternities that had given burlesques, finding themselves in 1889 sore pressed because their exchequers were low, combined forces and gave "Robin Hood," for which, contrary to all precedent, tickets were sold. It had an enormous artistic as well as financial success, and the clubs followed it by two others in the next two years. The fraternity coffers were heaped and riches seemed perennial, when, alas! it was discovered that by the two societies' rehearsing together, and having the freedom of each others' club rooms, they were getting into a way of discussing each others' affairs and being cognizant of matters belonging only to the initiated. In a word they were ceasing to be "secret" societies, and sooner would the college man lose his right hand than that such a thing should occur; so, closely hugging its mantle of secrecy, each club retired to its own rooms, and, closing the door behind, went on its college way alone. Since then the outer world has never witnessed any theatricals at Yale, and while the policy of secret societies remains what it now is the amusement is for the few.

Theatricals and glees are the two chief recreations of a man's college life. Surely if, as is sometimes said, too much time is devoted to such frivolities, in justification it may be urged that they give the students much pleasure and sharpen the wits in a most harmless way. Sometimes, too, they serve to show a man where lies his talent for a future career, as in the case of a "leading" man of one of the dramatic stock companies in New York, who is an alumnus of Princeton, and as an "undergrad" was prominent in college society theatricals.

ITALIAN AGRICULTURE.

BY RAFFAELE DE CESARE.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

IN the more than quarter of a century since new Italy found its capital in Rome, the agricultural problem has not yet entered on the way to a rapid and radical solution. If a portion only of the millions squandered within and without the walls of the Eternal City, in building houses and quarters for which there were no occupants, had been spent on the lands about it, with the direct but not the sole purpose of agrarian improvement, how many less follies would we have seen and what diminution in the ruin of public and private fortunes! If the old city pent up in the Campus Martius, with its awe-inspiring, picturesque appearance, monumental yet rustic, civilized yet unpolished, peopled by priests and antiquarians—if this old city is in part a memory to-day, the character of our farm lands has remained unaltered.

And Rome, seen from the hills of Tusculum, still offers the old image of a vast cemetery surrounded by a desolate region, a region of wandering shepherd life and natural pastures as far as the eye can see, a region of swamps and malaria, a region filled with the remains of the great Latin towns and medieval aqueducts. The Campagna has not lost this character. Agricultural improvements are merely oases in its desert.

New Italy has not been able to do any better than the law of July 8, 1883, a law based on suppositions. The state insisted on agricultural improvements for a radius of six and one fourth miles, but it neither furnished the money at low rates of interest in order to carry them out, nor did it possess the necessary means to buy the lands. Nor did its political economy favor the work of improvement, by providing that the price of wheat and wool, exclusively products of the soil, should be remuneratively maintained, as in the past. The fall

of the price of wheat from one dollar and thirty cents a bushel to ninety cents brought about a most ruinous panic among the owners and renters of the Roman Campagna, and removed all temptation to apply new methods and experiments. Still the law of 1883 did not lapse without some results.

Several farm-buildings were built within the six and a quarter miles, many streets were laid out, drains were constructed, some streams were restrained within their banks, and new systems of cultivation tried. These solutions were partial or went only half-way. They were mainly bold attempts crowned with failure, or an occasional success, due more to chance, perhaps, than to calculation, and among the successes the most recent and seemingly the most solid and profitable up to the present time is the farm called "Cervelletta." This success has been achieved by breaking down the old tradition of farm tenantry. Tenant and proprietor, no longer indifferent or hostile to each other, are associated in the same work of improvement, bringing to it a union of capital with labor, and they are beginning a work of redemption, both agrarian and economic, that merits being narrated.

Four and a third miles outside the gate Maggiore, on the left of the Aniene, lies the estate of Duke Antonio Salvati, called the Cervelletta. It covers an area of six hundred and twenty-five acres, two hundred and forty-seven of which are formed of lands lying in deep and well-watered valleys. This estate was rented by three Lombards, from low Lombardy, the region of the plains, under a contract which I consider a most happy one. It is a contract of tenantry and improvement at the same time. The owner assists in the improvements, which are studied out and esti-

mated beforehand, by furnishing \$9,750 in cash and \$2,630 in cattle. He is paid in return five per cent interest on this advance. The tenants furnish in their turn the sums and the labor which are to be spent on roads and paths, receiving fixed compensation for both. By thus making both tenant and proprietor concur in the heavier expenses the great difficulty of compensation at the end of the lease is avoided. The tenant is satisfied by the greater return yielded by the improvements, and the proprietor not only gets the improvements but can ultimately increase the rent of the estate.

The rent paid for the Cervelletta in the first nine years was \$4,100, in the second nine it rises to \$4,875, and will be larger after that. The improvements planned by the engineer of this farm were directed toward restraining the streams in their beds and getting them under such control as to use them for purposes of irrigation when necessary. Also he planned to fill up the low places by taking dirt from the hillocks and rises of ground or from the hills near by. Besides he worked to fill up the many broad ditches which intersect the estate, after draining them because the water did not stand at a level in them, and he substituted for these ditches, which are so many sources of malaria, and uselessly occupy a large area, narrow drainage canals where the water may run rapidly and not stand stagnant. These drains serve also to drain the estate or to irrigate it if need be.

By filling in these low grounds and by his system of drains he has succeeded in obtaining a sufficient decrease in the amount of water standing in the lowest fields to make them healthful, while in the uplands the water thus canalized can be used for rapid irrigation. The lands near the hamlet, which were especially marshy, were reclaimed after several months' work, at the expense of from \$165 to \$220 an acre, and fitted to produce the proper crops, either annual or in rotation. In the hay-fields there can be eight or nine crops raised every year, winters included, and by means of irrigation the same average can be

maintained even in the periods of the greatest drought. The quantity and quality of the livestock is necessarily relative to the amount of fodder raised. For instance, before the improvements were started the estate supported only thirty-eight head of cattle. In March of last year there were already thirty-two cows, ten oxen, ten heifers, and seven horses. To-day there are almost a hundred milch cows alone, with forty heifers, besides the oxen and horses.

On the slopes vineyards are planted. Nut-bearing trees line the roads and the watercourses. At the head of the farm are the tenants themselves, with their families and their settled workmen, who have the exclusive care of the cattle, irrigation, and working the agricultural machinery. Besides there is a certain number of operatives, varying, according to the season and the amount of work to be performed, from one hundred and ten in winter to twenty in summer and autumn. The results are so far entirely satisfactory. Last year the wheat averaged thirty-seven bushels an acre, the corn sixty-seven. Hay was not very good, but flax and clover yielded well. The milk finds a good market and remunerative prices in Rome, and will for a long time to come. Rome consumes on the average thirteen quarts of milk per inhabitant, while Milan consumes ninety-five and foreign cities more than one hundred and five. At Rome milk costs more than elsewhere. The Cervelletta furnishes five hundred and thirty quarts to Roman consumption daily, besides a most excellent quality of butter.

Such an example was bound to be speedily followed. The contractor for the improvements on the Cervelletta associated himself with other parties and began improvements last April on a farm he had rented. These improvements consisted mainly in getting control of the water on the estate. A new road was made, ditches and irrigating canals constructed, a barn for cows and heifers, some fifty in number, was built. The work is still going on, with a view to making the land healthful and tillable. A few months later, in October

last, another rental of five hundred and twenty acres in extent and close to the Cervedetta was assigned to some tenants from Bergamo. This estate is somewhat hilly and can be irrigated in a few places only. It is best adapted to raising lambs and sheep. Should the fifteen hundred sheep that are placed there not consume all the pasturage and fodder that may be produced, the intention is to establish a small stock-farm and raise heifers. Vines and fruit-trees are being planted as an experiment, and the better lands will be cultivated with cereals and fodder in rotation.

Besides these three estates, whose improvement is being managed by tenants from Lombardy, we must notice another undertaking, noteworthy from the fact that it is in the hands of a Roman. These are the works begun by Settimio Mancini on his own estate and other land rented by him, twelve hundred and eighty acres in all, of which seven hundred and forty can be irrigated. A rational irrigation is the basis of the improvements which Mancini has begun to introduce, after having protected his fields as best he could from inundations by the Tiber. The exceptional fertility which abandoning that valley so many years has produced there, by means of which corn attains a phenomenal production, will doubtless soon furnish all the capital required for the transformations.

These examples show in what different ways one can set about improving estates, according to their intrinsic conditions, topographical and agricultural, and also how the system of improvements can undergo still other transformations in order to be adapted more and more to the nature of the lands. The shipwreck of the law of 1883 has shown how simple that principle was of adopting, in a mania for uniformity, general solutions for complex questions. Truly for any agricultural enterprise, not only in the Campagna but everywhere else, there is sufficient capital ready for investment in lands and barns, and there are definite agrarian ideas which can advise how to obtain the greatest return with the least outlay.

But it is essential that the tenant should

inhabit his farm in the midst of his workmen for a great part of the year at least. Nowadays, since we have undertaken with the aid of the state to improve the ponds and swamps of Ostia and Maccarese, the valley of the Almone, the marsh of Stracciaccapè, and the lakes of Pantano and Castiglione, of Bracciano and Tartari, which have been placed under some kind of a hydraulic system, since the works for curbing the Tiber inside the city have to some degree lessened the inundations in the valleys of the upper Tiber and the Aniene, agricultural improvements have been rendered possible and more easy to attain, and the habitable quality of some regions, like Tor Pignattura, Monte Verde, and even Ostia, only yesterday infested with malaria, has been demonstrated.

These works the state performed in virtue of the law of December 11, 1878, which had as its base the improvement of the ponds of Ostia, Porto, Camposalino, and Maccarese, and the lowlands of Isola Sacra. The hydraulic system of the valley of the Almone and the drying of the lands which emerged from the former lake of Pantano and other points were also at the expense of the state. The amount necessary to finish this work was \$2,730,000. The salubrication of the Campagna presents to-day less difficulties than it did in former years, while the necessity of accomplishing it is increased by the changed agricultural and economic conditions of all Italy and particularly of Rome. If before 1870 the malaria reached to the Castello Meadows, the Porta del Popolo suburbs, and the valley between Saint John and Saint Mary Maggiore, to-day a great step has been taken, and the municipal works have contributed to improve the conditions of the atmosphere in Rome.

Now that the first work of hydraulic improvement has been done we must bank up the Tiber and Aniene in order to prevent their devastating inundations, already less than in former times. And when this has been attained, one can safely set about the agrarian transformation, with the proviso that the necessary capital must be procured under favorable conditions and the lands

that are to be benefited should be exempt from taxes for twenty years. Also large rewards in money should be offered, in periodical contests, to the most enterprising farmers, who may obtain the most practical results, that is to say, best answering to the laws of financial return.

Finally, and this is the most difficult thing to secure, a tariff should be laid on grain—a tariff better suited to the needs of agriculture in the Campagna. In such a way, without preconceived or general ideas, under the guidance of results attained up to date, taking each case by itself, I believe that this region can be transformed in twenty years—transformed in those sections that are capable of transformation, of course. The picture of the capital, girt around by the desert, will remain in the canvases of the painters and in the descriptions of novelists and poets. Let us not be stopped by consideration of the cost or by doctrinal prejudices, and let us consider that it is a shame for new Italy to have done so little for the Roman Campagna in twenty-seven years.

There is no region of Italy which is more like the Campagna than the table-land of Apulia. The immense plain which gradually slopes from the hill of Montecalvello to the Adriatic Sea and has for boundaries the course of the Ofanto, the mountains of the Gargano, and the great Apennines, a uniform plain, up to thirty years ago devoid of trees and houses, and even to-day boasting of but few, has many characteristics in common with the plain around Rome. The area is about the same, seven hundred and forty thousand acres, the estates are immense, with plenty of pasturage and extensive cultivation. There are torrential streams, marshes, malaria, desolation.

In the last days of January I had occasion to go through that low part of the table-land which can be truly called "*Sad Capitanata*." In the midst of the Salentine peninsula, in the territory of the storied and ruined city of Otranto, lies a vast swampy region, formed by lakes and marshes. Two lakes, the great Limini and the little Limini, or Fontanelle, are connected with each other by means of a channel, where once passed the famous

Trajan Way, of which not a vestige remains to-day. Lake Fontanelle is only about two and a half miles distant from Otranto. The area covered by the basins of the two lakes and the communicating channel varies from a minimum of ten hundred and thirteen acres to a maximum of ten hundred and sixty-seven.

The basin of Lake Fontanelle is one and a fourth miles from the shore, and this is a genuine lake, whereas the other is only three fifths of a mile away and has an open outlet to the sea, of which originally it must have formed one of two bays. The country around the lakes is squalid and deserted. For a radius of almost four miles nothing is visible save Otranto, and homicidal miasmas rise from the swamps. And to think that this region was the theater where the most fruitful and genial life of the Salentine peoples developed, of the Italo-Greeks, of the Romans and the Middle Ages, and that up to the fifteenth century, when Otranto was a great and rich city, there still existed here most flourishing warehouses and factories!

The lakes are fed by the water which flows down from the surrounding country, from the vast highlands, and a considerable number of perennial and temporary springs. Their bottom is below sea-level, but the level of the water is higher than sea-level, because the outlet of the lake has been barred for centuries by brushwood and sand to prevent the fish which abound in it, and which are very fine and in great demand, from going out of it. To-day the fish do not yield an annual profit of more than \$780, while in the days of Rome the denizens of the Limini waters were most famous. The boundaries of the great Limini do not involve any expense, since the ground is almost everywhere rocky and the banks perpendicular, or with steep incline.

Therefore it is true that the basis of the improvements which my friend De Donno intends to carry out in this vast region consists in making the lakes become running water, by means of constructing at their mouth, now little more than thirty yards broad, a bridge with two or three arches, hanging low and covered with a metallic

netting to hinder the exit of the large fish. At De Donno's suggestion this region was visited by a commission of government engineers, all of whom agreed with De Donno's general ideas of improvement, which did not entail any considerable expense.

Another region to improve is the valley of the Idro, in the same district as Otranto. We can safely say that there is no more deadly malarial region in Italy than that, a swampy country, mainly a marsh, through which runs a stream, the Idro. The valley of the Idro is one and a fourth miles long and from two hundred and twenty to three hundred and thirty yards wide, comprising in all one hundred and fifty acres. Its ownership is so split up as to include two hundred and ninety proprietors. Inasmuch as the bed of the stream has sufficient slope it would be enough to simply build up its banks and dredge it, in order to give it a regular watercourse and hinder the stagnation of its waters, and thus restore life to seventeen communes and save thirty thousand souls.

Otranto, an ancient town which boasts Minos as its legendary founder, and is most noble for its glorious struggles against Islamism, by which its eight hundred martyrs are famous in the calendar of saints, in

position singularly fortunate, there where the sea contracts and becomes a canal almost in face of Vallona—Otranto has not even the semblance of a harbor. Even today, when horses are imported from the neighborhood of Vallona—and about thirty thousand of them are imported each year—we see the strange and barbarous sight of these horses being blinded and thrown into the sea, and then obliged to swim five hundred and fifty yards in order to reach land.

The works for a port have already been started and about \$3,000 already spent, furnished by the Chamber of Commerce and the provincial deputation of Lecce, but the government ought to lend its aid also to prevent the fury of the sea from finishing the ruin of the ancient Roman quay, nowadays insufficient for the exigencies of commerce. Indeed the state should free this whole country from the danger of malaria and want. To provide for the destiny of those moors, susceptible of rich harvests and covered with putrid waters and marsh sedge, is the appropriate work of the state. It is providing for the lot of many thousand human beings, and is therefore a humane work. The state which draws from these parts of Apulia two millions a year has no right to leave that population in pitiable abandonment.

CHARLES EGBERT CRADDOCK.

BY W. M. BASKERVILL, A.M., PH.D.

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THE appearance of Miss Mary Noailles Murfree as a writer emphasized the fact that the old order of the South had utterly passed away. For more than one hundred years the different generations of her family had been commonwealth-builders, not writers. Her great-great-grandfather, William Murfree, was a member of the North Carolina Congress which met at Halifax, November 12, 1776, for the purpose of framing a constitution for the new state. A year before, his son Hardy, just twenty-three years old, had been made a captain in the Continental line of his native state, and at

the capture of Stony Point he had risen to the rank of major and was in command of a body of picked men. His descendants still treasure the sash that he used in helping to bear the mortally wounded General Francis Nash from the battle-field of Germantown. After independence was won, he "was found busy with his plantation" on the banks of Meherrin River, near Murfreesboro, N. C., till 1807, when he removed to middle Tennessee, settling in Williamson County, on Murfree's fork of West Harpeth River. Those early settlers had an eye for rich lands. The town of Murfreesboro, not far

off, was named in his honor and his family thrive and married well.

Just prior to the Civil War, Hardy Murfree's grandson, William R. Murfree, was a successful lawyer in Nashville and the owner of a large amount of property in and about the city. His wife was Priscilla, the daughter of Colonel Dickerson, whose residence, "Grantlands," near Murfreesboro, was in its day the most magnificent in that region. In this home was born, about 1850, a little girl to whom her parents gave the name Mary Noailles, but whom most people will prefer to remember as Charles Egbert Craddock.

In childhood a paralysis, which caused lameness for life, deprived her of all participation in the sports of children and set her bright and active mind to work to devise its own amusement and entertainment. Early sickness has more than once proved a blessing in disguise to the future writer of fiction by teaching him to train the observation, to live in good books, and to company with his fancies. It sent Scott to the country and to the fountains of legend and story, strongly inclined Dickens to reading, and laid Hawthorne upon the carpet to study the long day through. In the same way the Tennessee girl early developed a marked fondness for works of fiction. It is easy to see that Scott and George Eliot were her favorites, and after reading with great earnestness one of their stirring and enlarging romances she would in her imagination body forth the entire story, investing mother, father, and other members of the large household with the characteristics of the persons of the powerful drama.

While an imagination originally vivid was thus strengthened, her life and surroundings encouraged a natural tendency to acute observation. After the cordial southern manner, hospitality reigned in her home, and the wide family connection and many friends were equally hospitable. At the academy in Nashville, where she was put to school, she was associated with the daughters of the best families in her own and neighboring states. She must also have been thrown much with her brother and other boys, for few masculine writers show so thorough an

understanding and appreciation of boy nature. And then there were the family servants, to whom every southern child of the old *régime* was indebted for unique cultivation of the fancy and many lasting impressions. To this day, it is said, Charles Egbert Craddock finds more enjoyment in a boy or darcy than in anything else.

This condition of society, along with her father's and mother's large estates, was swept away by the war. The old Dickerson mansion was still standing, and to this the family now went, expecting to stay only a short time, but remaining for years. This is the house of "Where the Battle Was Fought," and though the vivid description of it and the battle-field in the opening chapter of this novel are somewhat fanciful, enough of the reality remains to give us an accurate impression of the scenes amid which she now lived.

As a recompense for this monotonous and disheartening existence amid scenes of former happiness and splendor came the annual sojourn of the family during the summer months in the mountains of eastern Tennessee, which was repeated for fifteen years. Breathing this invigorating air, the thoughtful girl also enjoyed the wild birds and wilder flowers, the sylvan glades and foaming cataracts, and accompanied daily with the Blue Ridge, the Bald, the Chilhowee, and the Great Smoky Mountains, whose tops pierced the blue sky and whose steep and savage slopes were covered with vast ranges of primeval forest. These scenes were so indelibly etched upon her memory that years afterward a rare profusion of perfect pictures was easily obtainable therefrom.

But the deepest interest of a nature rich in thought, imagination, and wide human sympathy centered in the dwellers among those wild and rugged fastnesses. They were descendants of the earliest settlers in the Old North State, and more than three quarters of a century before had climbed over the high ranges which form a natural boundary between Tennessee and her parent state and perched on the mountain sides or nestled in the coves of their new home. To them

the great world outside and beyond the hazy boundaries of their mountain ranges remained an unknown land; and the tide of modern progress dashed idly at the foot of their primitive ideas and conservative barriers. There was no room for progress, for the mountaineers were not only satisfied with things as they existed, but were unaware that there could be a different existence. For centuries no enlargement had come into their narrow individual lives and scant civilization, which to the casual observer seemed as bare and blasted as the "balds" upon the Great Smokies.

But to this acute and sympathetic observer were revealed not only the elemental qualities of our common humanity, but also the sturdy independence, integrity, strength of character, and finer feelings always found in the English race, however disguised by harsh or rugged exterior. Their honesty, their patriotism, their respect for law, their gloomy Calvinistic religion, their hospitality were in spite of the most curious modifications the salient points of a striking individuality and unique character. The mountains seemed to impart to them something of their own dignity, solemnity, and silence. Their archaic dialect and slow, drawling speech could flash with dry humor and homely mother wit and glow with the white heat of biting sarcasm or lofty emotion. Their deliberate movement and impassive faces veiled deep feelings and pent-up passions, and they could be as sudden and destructive as nature herself in her fiercer moods, or as tender and self-forgetful as Mary of Magdala. Fearless of man and open foes, the bravest of them shuddered at the mention of the "harnt of Thunderhead" and shrank from opening the graves of the "little people." Every stream or cave had its legend or spirit, and towering crag and blue dome were chronicled in tradition and story. No phase of this unique life escaped the keen eye and powerful imagination of the most robust of southern writers in this most impressible period of her life.

The growth of Craddock's art cannot be traced with certainty, though it is now known that she served an apprenticeship

of nearly ten years before her stories began to make any stir in the world. The general belief therefore that her literary career began with "The Dancin' Party at Harrison's Cove," which appeared in May, 1878, is incorrect. She used to contribute to the weekly edition of *Appleton's Journal*, which ceased publication in that form in 1876, and it is a little remarkable that her contributions were even then signed Charles E. Craddock. Two of her stories were left over, and one of them, published in "Appleton's Summer Book," in 1880, "Taking the Blue Ribbon at the Fair," rather indicates that she had not yet discovered wherein her true power lay. The assumed name which her writings bore was finally determined upon by accident, though the matter had been much discussed in her family. It was adopted for the double purpose of cloaking failure and of securing the advantage which a man is supposed to have over a woman in literature. It veiled one of the best concealed identities in literary history. More than one person divined George Eliot's secret and the penetrating Dickens observed that she knew what was in the heart of woman. But neither internal nor external evidence offered any clue to Craddock's personality. The startlingly vigorous and robust style and the intimate knowledge of the mountain folk in their almost inaccessible homes, suggestive of the sturdy climber and bold adventurer, gave no hint of femininity, while certain portions of her writings, both in thought and treatment, were peculiarly masculine.

The manuscript of "Mr." Craddock certainly had nothing feminine about it, with its large, bold characters, every letter as plain as print, and strikingly thick, black lines. In no way did Craddock betray "his" identity. Mr. Howells, who was the first to perceive the striking qualities of the stories, never suspected that the new writer was a woman, and Mr. Aldrich, who shortly succeeded him, and one of whose first acts as editor was to write to "My dear Craddock" for further contributions, was equally wide of the mark, though he mused considerably over the personality of

the remarkably original contributor. Once he wrote asking how the latter could have become so intimate with the strange, quaint life of the mountaineers, but the pleasant reply threw no light upon the author's personality. But gradually the mystery cleared away, though the final revelation was reserved for a particularly dramatic situation.

Editor and publishers learned that M. N. Murfree was the author's real name, and Mr. Aldrich rather prided himself, we are told, upon directing his communications thereafter to M. N. Murfree, Esq., feeling very confident that one who evinced such knowledge of the law as her writings gave evidence of and wrote with such a pen could be no other than a lawyer. So liberal indeed was the author in the use of ink that the editor had his little joke, as he was writing to ask for what proved to be the powerful novel of "The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains," remarking, "I wonder if Craddock has laid in his winter's ink yet, so that I can get a serial out of him." What was his surprise, therefore, as one Monday morning in March, 1885, he was called from the editorial room, to find awaiting him below a young lady of slight form, about five feet four inches in height, with blond complexion and light brown, almost golden hair, bright, rather sharp face, with all the features quite prominent, forehead square and projecting, eyes gray, deep-set, and keen, nose Grecian, chin projecting, and mouth large—who quietly remarked that she was Charles Egbert Craddock.

Miss Murfree's literary career really began with the publication of her collection of short stories, "In the Tennessee Mountains," in 1884. It was at once recognized that a writer of uncommon art, originality, and power had entered into an altogether new and perfectly fresh field. There was no trace of imitation in conception or manner. The atmosphere was entirely her own and to the rare qualities of sincerity, simplicity, and closeness of observation were added the more striking ones of vivid realization and picturing of scene and incident and character. Her magic wand re-

vealed to us the poetry and the pathos of the hard, narrow, and monotonous life of the mountaineers, and touched mountain and wood and crag and stream with an enduring splendor. The beautiful examples of sublimely unconscious, noble, and heroic living became a part of our permanent possessions—an uplifting force in our lives.

Through the power of human sympathy and love, the delicately nurtured and highly cultured lady had entered into the life of the common folk and heard their heart-throbs underneath jeans and calico. She realized anew for her fellow men that untutored souls are perplexed with the same questions and shaken by the same doubts that baffle the learned, and that it is inherent in humanity to rise to the heroic heights of self-forgetfulness and devotion to duty in any environment. Indeed the keynote of her studies is found in the last sentence of this volume: "The grace of culture is, in its way, a fine thing, but the best that art can do—the polish of a gentleman—is hardly equal to the best that nature can do in her higher moods." Nor is the artist less successful in realizing the lonely, half-mournful, yet self-reliant life of the mountain folk, which is presented with all the accessories of changing seasons, of sunshine and storm, of early morn and starry night, of trees and flowers, and with the wild scenery and the eternal mountains as a most impressive background. The large and solemn presence of nature is never lost sight of.

The promise of Miss Murfree's first volume was more than fulfilled in the succeeding ones which now rapidly followed each other—"Where the Battle Was Fought," "Down the Ravine," "The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains," "In the Clouds," "The Story of Keeton Bluffs," "The Despot of Broomsedge Cove," "In the Stranger People's Country," "His Vanished Star," "The Phantoms of the Footbridge," "The Mystery of Witch-Face Mountain," while "The Mountain Boys" is announced, and "The Juggler" is now appearing in *The Atlantic*.

Necessarily there is some repetition and sameness in so many stories of a similar

nature. Miss Murfree, like Dickens and Scott, who oftentimes change names but not heroes, gives only slight variations of the same type in Cynthia Ware, Dorinda Cayce, Alethea Sayles, Letitia Pettingill, and Marcella Strobe, and yet this variation produces admirable and attractive studies of the same type. Her heroes are equally attractive in their way—blacksmiths, constables, herdsmen, rustic preachers—they are all powerfully conceived, and the most remarkable thing about the whole matter is that she seems to understand their different natures even better than the natures of her feminine creations. All her children are admirable; Jacob, 'Gustus Tom, Bob, Isabel, Rosamondy are each conceived as an individual character. Miss Murfree is especially tender with children. Even Teck Jepson,

who has been recognized as a relative of Balfour of Burleigh, is yet strangely unlike the stern Covenanter in his tenderness to childhood.

In the plots of her longer stories Miss Murfree is more sustained and successful than any of the southern writers except James Lane Allen, though her real skill does not lie in plot. We could but wish that Miss Murfree had given us more stories after the manner of "Where the Battle Was Fought"—pictures of old southern life and character. This story was full of promise, though less successful than any of her other books, and the hand that drew General Wayne and Marcia should exercise itself on this larger canvas. It is a richer field and we hope that the author will some day return to it.

SUMMER IN THE CEMETERY.

BY NETTIE J. HUNT.

SHE softly folds her glowing robes upon them—
Those dear, bare mounds that hold the hearts we miss—
And brightens them with violets blue, and wakens
The tender fern, with many a lover's kiss.

She bids the robin and the bluebird loiter
And trill their sweetest in the cypress trees;
They know no death-tale, so their glorious piping
Fills with its melody the scented breeze.

And then she presses loving lips upon them—
Those mounds so bright with blue and gold and green—
"O dust that liest beneath this matchless splendor,
Knowest thou never fairer robes were seen?"

"Into thy darkened eyes does not the sunrise
Gleam in its rose-hued marvel ever new?
Into thy sleeping ears do not the bird-songs
Steal with their tales of love forever true?"

But to her loving passion comes no answer,
So, with a flood of tender, gushing tears,
Leaves she white lilies, golden-hearted, fragrant,
Whispers, "Sleep on till God's great spring appears!"

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

REMEDIES PERMISSIBLE IN HOUSEHOLD MEDICINE. °

BY H. A. HARE, M.D.

I.

IT is very difficult to dogmatically exclude certain remedies from household medicine, simply because conditions may arise which would justify their employment, or other conditions which would render them positively harmful. What is said on this topic, therefore, will have to be taken in the light of a general rule rather than a specific statement concerning any individual case.

One remedy which can be used with great frequency and often with great benefit in household medicine is that which is popularly known as the sweet spirit of niter, which is employed, as many persons know, for the purpose of allaying moderate fever and nervous excitement, particularly when these symptoms arise in young children. It is given to a child in a dose of from ten to twenty drops, generally in cold water, and this may be repeated every two hours during the night. As a rule it tends to increase the activity of the kidneys and also the activity of the skin, so that as the temperature falls the child frequently breaks out into a slight perspiration. These doses, or ones which are slightly larger, are entirely harmless in practically every disease which will be met with, and it is only when very large doses, amounting to several teaspoonfuls, are given at once that sweet spirit of niter has the power of doing great harm. In the dose of an ounce or two given by mistake it has caused death, so that it cannot be considered an absolutely innocuous drug in any quantity.

It is a curious fact that if given in very cold water, and when the patient is lightly covered, sweet spirit of niter will act chiefly on the kidneys, whereas if it is given in a hot lemonade to which has been added a little whiskey or brandy, and if at the same time the patient is warmly covered in

bed, it will very frequently produce a profuse sweat and so will tend to break up a forming cold. This drug should be bought in small quantities and a fresh supply obtained each time it is needed, as it is a remedy which loses its medicinal activity if it is exposed to light and air for any considerable period of time; moreover the cork in a bottle of sweet spirit of niter very soon becomes imperfect and as a result the medicine loses its value.

Brandy, whiskey, and other stimulants which depend upon the alcohol they contain for their chief medicinal activity, if used at all in household medicine, should be administered with great caution. Aside from the abuse of these drugs from the moral standpoint they are very much abused by the friends of persons who are ill, particularly in the event of sudden illness. It seems to be the general idea of many persons that when an accident occurs whiskey or brandy is at once needed by the patient. As a general rule, unless they are ordered by a physician you should refrain from administering these powerful stimulants, as they frequently do more harm than good.

I well remember the case of a young man whose kneecap was dislocated on the football field, to whom his friends gave so much whiskey, because he was slightly faint from the accident, that by the time the patient was removed to the hospital he was so violently intoxicated that nothing could be done for his damaged limb except to bind it up on a pillow and wait until the effects of certain sedatives quieted him. In another instance a member of the United States Congress who suffered from a slight attack of apoplexy, which is a hemorrhage into the brain, received so much whiskey from solicitous friends that his heart was stimulated to increased exertion and after temporary im-

provement the hemorrhage into his brain came on again and he speedily died, although there was reason to believe that the first hemorrhage was so small as not to be fatal. In this case the friends of the patient were to a great extent responsible for his death.

When you have decided that whiskey or brandy are needed as stimulants in cases of faintness, you should remember that they are to be given in a hot and concentrated form, because all liquids which are taken into the stomach must be warmed to the temperature of the body before they are absorbed. If this were not true, after drinking a glass of ice-water we would be in the awkward predicament of feeling the ice-cold fluid circulating through our blood-vessels. If, therefore, you give whiskey or brandy in cold water it cannot be absorbed and exert its stimulating effect until the liquid is sufficiently warmed, and this may cause the loss of valuable time. Further, if you dilute the brandy with too much water all the liquid must be absorbed before the patient gets the benefit of the stimulant. Thus, if the brandy is given in a tablespoonful of hot water the stomach can absorb this quantity in a very few minutes, whereas if it is given in a half pint of hot water it will take many minutes before this quantity of liquid will be taken up by the blood-vessels, and while it lies in the stomach it is as useless to the patient as if it lay in the palm of his hand.

There are other stimulants which are largely prepared by manufacturing druggists or by retail druggists and widely advertised to the laity—such substances as the various wines or other preparations of cocoa or kola, both of which are very powerful nervous stimulants, closely associated in their action with that of caffeine, the active ingredient in ordinary coffee. It is of the greatest importance to remember that all these substances are nervous stimulants which enable the body for a short time to put out a little more force, with a corresponding increase in exhaustion afterward. They are nothing but "whips applied to the tired horse," to make him do more work when in reality he should be obtaining rest. The person who resorts to these remedies, misled by the

false assertions of those whose interest it is to sell them, will in the end find himself a nervous and physical wreck, because, like a careless banker, he has not only utilized his ordinary amount of strength, but called upon his reserves, which ought to have been kept for the proper maintenance of his vital functions.

Physicians constantly see patients who would be horror-stricken at the idea of being devoted to the whiskey or brandy bottle but who seem to think that there is no possible harm in resorting to wines of cocoa or kola with or without other ingredients. In many instances these wines contain such a large quantity of alcohol that in addition to the stimulating effect of their medicinal ingredients they produce an effect equivalent to that induced by a drink of whiskey. They should therefore be employed only under the direction of a physician, and should a physician order them the prescription calling for them is not to be renewed indefinitely, excepting under his advice.

The same objections exist against the employment of all those preparations of bromide and caffeine which are utilized under different combined names in the treatment of headache, and very much the same objection exists, too, against many of the so-called headache powders or tablets which are now placed upon the market for the use of the unwary. These powders nearly always contain caffeine, which is a stimulant, and they also contain some drug derived from coal-tar, which when taken continuously or in overdose acts deleteriously upon the blood. I refer to such remedies as phenacetin, antipyrin, and acetanilide. It is true that they do relieve headache in many cases, but they should be used with caution. You should remember that a headache is a symptom, not a disease, and that it is a symptom of many diseases, ranging all the way from so serious affections as Bright's disease and brain tumor to the headache due to lack of sleep. The removal of the symptom "headache" in a person suffering from Bright's disease may give such temporary relief that the patient will ignore the condition of his kidneys and go to a physician only when

his state is so serious that his headache cannot be put aside by these means, and when it is perhaps too late for him to gain any benefit from treatment. In many instances of nervous headache, quiet, rest, a suitable amount of sleep, and a proper regulation of the diet are what the patient needs, and using headache powders is simply postponing the evil day, with compound interest to pay in the end.

Finally, let me warn you in regard to the use of all stimulants. They never add nourishment to the body. As I have said before, they are "whips" which call into play those powers meant for reserve, and nothing can be more harmful than to

keep on day after day whipping up a tired nervous system by powerful stimulants.

It is hardly necessary to call attention to the fact that the constant use of opium or morphine or preparations containing this drug is exceedingly deleterious, and that it is very easy to slip into the opium habit by taking a little laudanum or morphia whenever a slight pain or ache appears. I have known cases in which nervous women developed a paregoric habit and in the end had to be treated not only for the opium habit but for the alcohol habit, because they took paregoric in such quantities that they became partially intoxicated from the alcohol which it contains.

ANNUAL FLOWERS AND THEIR CULTURE.

BY EBEN E. REXFORD.

TO have success with annuals one must begin right. A great many persons simply scratch over the surface of the ground with a hoe or rake, sow their seed carelessly, and consider the garden made. Such persons always fail to have good flowers and wonder why. The answer is a simple one—they did not go to work right.

The first thing to do is to spade up the soil well to the depth of at least a foot. Do this as soon as the ground is in a fair working condition in spring. Then let it lie, exposed to the action of sun and wind, until it will crumble readily under the hoe. Then pulverize it well. You cannot make it too fine and mellow. If it is not naturally rich, see that it is made so by the application of some good fertilizer. If you can obtain old, rotten manure from a cow-yard you will be fortunate, for nothing is better for most plants, but if this is not obtainable use finely ground bone meal, applying about half a pound to each square yard of soil. Whatever fertilizer is used should be worked in well.

Do not be in too great a hurry about sowing seed. Nothing is gained by haste, and often all is lost by it. At the North we are

pretty sure to have cold spells of weather until the middle of May. It is well to wait until we are reasonably sure of warm, settled weather before putting seed into the ground.

Sow evenly, and scatter fine soil over the seed. Then press it down firmly with a smooth board. This makes the scattered soil compact, and helps it to retain moisture until the seed beneath it has time to germinate.

As soon as your plants are large enough to show the difference between themselves and weeds, begin to pull the latter. Weeding is the rock on which most amateur florists make utter shipwreck of their attempts at gardening. They let the weeds grow until they get the start of the flowering plants, and by that time they have so completely taken possession of the garden that it is too late to reclaim it. Weeding must be begun as soon as you can tell the weed from the flower, and it must be kept up persistently as long as weeds continue to appear. It may not be pleasant work but it is very necessary work, and unless it is attended to you cannot expect success. Bear this in mind, and do not attempt gardening unless you are willing to pull the weeds that you will be sure to find springing up everywhere among your flowers. By doing this

at the beginning, and keeping at it, you will soon become master of the situation.

I would not advise trying to grow a little of everything, as so many persons do. A few kinds, well grown, will be found much more satisfactory than many kinds not well grown. Therefore concentrate your efforts.

You will, of course, want sweet peas. They will make your garden beautiful, and every day you will cut from them for use in the house and for gifts to your friends. No garden is complete without this lovely and lovable flower.

For showy beds we have nothing superior to the petunia. It is a wonderfully free and constant bloomer, lasting till severe frost. The phlox is also very desirable for beds. I would advise buying packages of seed in which each color is by itself, and getting only three colors, rose, white, and pale yellow. These colors harmonize finely, but from packages of mixed seed you will be likely to get many plants of magenta, crimson, and lilac, and these will give a discordant note in your color-scheme.

Nasturtiums are excellent for cutting. They do not do as well in a rich soil as in a moderately fertile one. If the soil is rich, there will be a most luxuriant growth of branches and few flowers.

Balsams like a sunny location. In order to have their flowers seen to advantage clip away some of the foliage along the branches.

Every garden should have a bed of poppies and one of marigolds—both “old-fashioned,” but all the better for that. The little “velvet” marigolds are charming for cut work.

For a bed of brilliant effect you can choose nothing superior to coreopsis, with its rich golden flowers, marked with maroon. This, too, is excellent for cutting.

For late flowering, the aster is the best annual we have. It is really a rival of the chrysanthemum in beauty. Be sure to include it in your list.

Of course there will be pansies. These are really not annuals, but they bloom the first year from seed and are generally classed among the annuals. They will give their finest flowers in fall, after cool weather sets

in. I have never seen a garden that seemed to have too many of these lovely flowers in it. We never tire of them. The florists have made wonderful improvements in them by careful cultivation and some of the recently introduced “strains” give us flowers that are gorgeous in coloring without being gaudy. A pansy is never that, no matter how many or how brilliant colors it may array itself in. Of all flowers it seems to me the most human, and if I could have but one plant for my garden that plant should be a pansy.

One of the most charming flowering vines we have is the good old morning-glory, with its trumpet-shaped blossoms of white, pink, crimson, and blue, so freely produced that the vines are literally covered with them during the early part of the day. Do not let any “craze” for novelties lead you to overlook this dear old flower. If it were new the catalogues would exhaust the entire list of superlative-degree adjectives in describing its beauty. It is none the less deserving attention because it is old—indeed it deserves it all the more, because age has proved its merit. For covering verandas and training up about doors and windows it is the best summer vine we have.

You will want mignonette for fragrance. A spray of it will add to the sweetness of every bouquet you give away and work in most charmingly among the flowers you cut for use in the house. It is not showy, but it has a quiet little beauty all its own in its quaker-like blooms.

The gladiolus is not an annual, but it is a flower that should have a place in every garden. It is of the very easiest cultivation. Any one can grow it. Give it a soil of moderate richness, plant the corms five or six inches deep at “corn-planting time,” and keep the weeds away from it, and it asks no more. It blossoms in August, continuing well into September, and its great spikes of bloom have all the delicacy of a lily combined with the rich coloring of an orchid. The range of colors is wide—white, pale yellow, rose, lilac, cherry, crimson, scarlet, purple, mauve, and magenta—and many varieties combine several of these

colors in the same flower in most peculiar and striking fashion. By all means have a bed of gladioli.

In dry seasons, water your plants well daily. Do this after sundown, that the soil may have a chance to absorb the moisture before it evaporates from the effect of sunshine. Keep the ground open, even in the driest season, because it is then in a condi-

tion to absorb moisture from dews and slight rains. If allowed to crust over, it will lose the benefit of these. Keep seed from forming by removing all flowers as soon as they fade. If this is done your plants will keep on blooming the greater part of the season. Allow seed to form and you will not have many flowers after midsummer.

THE LONDON SOCIAL SEASON.

BY SOPHIE LAMPE.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

THE very mention of the London season gives me a stifled, crowded feeling. Wherever in thought I turn, a human throng meets my gaze and I feel like an atom in the innumerable multitude that ceaselessly surges everywhere, shoving and hindering me at every step, indoors, on the streets, in the parks. My ears ring with the incessant din of wagons rattling and horses passing by. Nor is there any escape from all this confusion day or night, till the nerves grow weary and life becomes a burden.

Yet every year thousands of persons, well able to choose a dwelling anywhere on the earth, voluntarily take up this burden—just at the most beautiful time of the year, too. So it happens that, in London, April is the harvest time of the house decorator and paper-hanger. Then in front of every house in Belgrave Square stands a great furniture wagon, the window shutters are opened for the first time in eight months, and everything is lifted, cleaned, and turned topsyturvy. In this month the family moves into its city home for the sake of abiding in London during the spring and early summer, for this is the "season" when "society" assembles in London.

The wonderful jumble, the cosmopolitan confusion is a fitting accompaniment to the remarkable spectacle this society presents. It is not altogether a pleasing spectacle, I must say, for I never yet have found the transactions of a great fair elevating. They appeal

chiefly to the lower passions, selfishness, covetousness, jealousy, revenge. And the actions of a large share of society certainly reduce it to the level of a fair. These people put on exhibit, barter, polish up, trade under false pretenses, deceive, speculate, and after all frequently reckon without their host. Some of them go home at the end of the season with rich winnings, exceeding their rashest expectations, but many others have lost, some so much that they are banished forever from the scene. "Where is Mr. So-and-so?" "He has gone to the colonies." His acquaintances know what that means; namely, he is a ruined man.

All this, of course, takes place under the shield of pleasure. One standing as a spectator in the thick of the trouble of a London season and hearing the term pleasure as it is commonly used may well doubt his senses and ask himself: "What then is pleasure?" As far as the eye may judge it consists of hard work for long hours.

Here is a day's program, that with a few little changes will be followed daily for the four months: In the morning from ten to twelve o'clock a promenade afoot or on horseback in Rotten Row, Hyde Park; at two o'clock a luncheon party at Mrs. R.'s; in the afternoon comes Lady H.'s "at home," in the evening, dinner at Duchess von B.'s, then a reception at the Hon. Mrs. Z.'s, or a theater, or two or three balls.

Do these companies afford an intellectual pastime? The luncheons and dinners fully

verify the Frenchman's comment that "The English feed, the French dine." But what shall be said of the "at home?"

Lady X. has a pretty though not large house in one of the squares in the neighborhood of Hyde Park. The first story, as in all London houses, consists of two *salons*. These *salons* will hold perhaps a hundred persons standing. Lady X. calmly issues three hundred invitations, calculating that a hundred will be discreet enough to decline, a hundred can stand in the *salons*, while the other hundred can be distributed about the staircase and dining-room.

It is a hot June day, as pitilessly hot as it can become only in a great city, when the feet almost stick on the melted asphalt pavement, the tar spread over the wood pavements is melted, and the breeze is laden with vapors arising from the water sprinkled on the whirling dust. At Lady X.'s the guests assemble. It keeps getting more crowded, until they stand like suffering lambs in a pen. The clever woman makes for the dining-room immediately upon her arrival and there is refreshed. It is a matter of sheer muscle and disregard of polite formalities to work one's way to the lady of the house. That is the extent of courtesy; no one pretends to do more. One nods and beckons to friends and acquaintances in the distance. She wishes she could go to them for a little chat, but impossible. The lady who can get enough elbow-room to use her fan a little may count herself happy. Those nearest her are strangers, so conversation is cut off and, indeed, it takes her undivided attention to keep her feet from being trodden on. How pleasant, too, on a hot June day to stand in tight dress shoes on a thick Smyrna carpet for an hour without being able to stir from the spot! By the noise that fills the room one is aware that acquaintances finally have found each other. From one corner of the room a singer is trying to drown out the chatter; only those very near her pay any attention. The others in the *salon* and on the stairs talk loudly all through the music.

After one has "enjoyed herself" thus for an hour she must again elbow her way back

to the hostess to take leave and declare she has "enjoyed herself very much indeed."

Sometimes for variety there is a bazaar or concert which one must attend either from personal interest in the giver of the concert or because the entertainment is to be patronized by a royal personage. If the latter is indeed to be present, that is a more substantial reason for going, for then one has the distinguished honor of having one's name appear in company with that of the princess, in the next day's paper.

To be mentioned with the "royalties" as often as possible in the *Morning Post*, the fashionable newspaper, is the great ambition of most women of the London "season." The common people seek after the titled dignitaries more than do the born aristocrats. To have a "lord" at one's party is the highest aspiration of the wife of a millionaire or of a newly fledged minister. True a complete disclosure is made in the *Morning Post's* announcement that a lady of the aristocracy offers to introduce a young lady into society for the consideration of £800. This and other notices of like import are not infrequently to be found in the newspapers during the season.

It is generally known, as Americans declare, that it is much easier to get an introduction into London society than into the society of New York or even of Boston and Philadelphia. Money and names are the idols that everybody serves. Some offer their names, some the influence they possess by virtue of their official positions, others their money, and then the market is open.

The great wonder of it all is the lack of reserve with which they flaunt the exchange before the public, their shameless disregard for publicity in their attempts to overbid each other. A woman who has two unmarried daughters announces to all the world that she invites to her house only the oldest sons (in England the title goes only to the oldest son). Indeed to be the oldest son, the heir to a title, is in London worth something of itself. It is wonderful how the feminine world pays homage to such rarities—actually throws itself at their feet and fawns on them.

What discomforts would not be endured for a title? "Oh, yesterday," a young lady told me, "I was at the most beautiful ball; all the royalties were there." "Did you then dance so very often?" "Oh, no, but it was so lovely to be with all the royalties!" And yet some one prophesies that the throne is toppling!

"Just think, I have to go to that horrid tea at Lady X. N.'s," another lady confided to me. Then she enumerated ten or twelve invitations and complained most loudly of the labor in store for her. "But if it gives you no satisfaction, why do you go? In your place I should do what pleased me." "No, that will never do, one must take part in everything and be seen everywhere, otherwise she will be forgotten." I have found almost touching instances of this poverty of influence.

It seems as if society had wilfully set out to turn upside down the customs of life which in view of our inheritance and abilities seem the most natural and therefore the most healthy. One goes to a dinner or a theater at about nine o'clock in the evening, to a reception at about half past ten or eleven o'clock, and to a ball never before eleven o'clock. Thus the night is deliberately made day, and the most beautiful time of day, the fresh, salubrious, sunshiny morning hours, are slept away.

They say that malefactors shun the light; this characteristic does not seem to be peculiar to them alone, for to judge from the adjustment of life in the higher society of London it is a common mark of our highest civilization. But is there not something of

transgression in the customs of these circles? The members of this society not only themselves trample the privileges nature has granted for the sound life of man, but they draw other circles into this unnatural manner of living. Every one suffers thereby who depends for his position, his business, upon society's life of pleasure. Every such one is deprived of a certain part of precious sunlight.

One who bears a great name has a foolish fancy, carries it out, and the whole coterie of society applauds and exults over the "idea," finds it charming, original, and sets out to imitate it with as much zeal as if there were nothing in the world of more importance. Thus it is made the style. If any one makes the reasonable criticism, "That is so foolish, unnatural, and so ugly," the reply is, "Yes, but it is the fashion."

I have here shown only a few slant lights on the social life of London as they strike the eye of the observer standing in the midst of the tumult. England has, of course, other circles of social life. First of these are the old aristocracy and gentry, who, residing on their estates, preserve the old traditions. Then there is the class of scholars and, in the middle classes, there are the great sects in which the Puritanical traditions prevail, the genuine kernel of the people. Yes, England can show other sides of life. In its great philanthropic work and in the co-operation of all classes in this work it stands alone among all peoples. But here, too, perhaps it is the extreme that is mentioned, and it may be that the degeneration on one side calls out exertion on the other.

AMATEUR PHOTOGRAPHY.

BY EDWARD W. NEWCOMB.

IT is hardly more than a score of years since the practice of photography involved a long apprenticeship in order to master its intricacies, and a more than fundamental knowledge of chemistry was necessary. Cameras and lenses were bulky, all the apparatus was cumbersome, and, with

its deep stains, intolerable odors, and poisonous chemicals, photography offered but slight inducements to amateurs.

With the invention of the dry plate, opportunity was afforded to every one to experiment, and so popular a pastime was it found to be that numerous companies were

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formed to cater to the requirements of modern photography, and invention followed invention, ultra rapid plates, rollable film, small but quick-working lenses, compact apparatus, simple chemicals, and ready prepared sensitized products, until, at the present day, it is safe to say that without the slightest chemical knowledge or other preparation one can, with a few hours' instruction, learn all that is necessary to make really good photographs, after which practice alone is needed to perfect the art.

Furthermore, from the sensitive plate or film to the prepared paper and chemicals necessary, everything needed can be bought ready for use, all neat and cleanly. Cameras are to be had which are so lightly built and fold so compactly as to permit of their even being carried in the pocket. The photograph of a rapidly moving object, which would have been a matter of wonderment thirty years ago, is too common to attract any attention to-day, and we even dispense with the dark room in refilling our camera now, as film is provided which, being covered with a black paper backing, can be inserted in its place in broad daylight without injury.

Since the necessary paraphernalia has been so simplified and the operations incident to making photographs reduced to almost mechanical ones, the art is becoming deservedly popular, as it affords every opportunity for the display of taste in selection of subjects, educates us in art matters, and teaches us of the beauties of nature which had been overlooked and unappreciated. The pursuit of photography is not only educational and refining, but, inasmuch as it affords an incentive to travel in search of beautiful views, is a healthful occupation as well.

A modest but thoroughly practical outfit for a beginner is embodied in the following list, which, while comprising everything really necessary for taking and finishing pictures, will be found compact enough to stow away in small space when not being used:

Camera (either hand camera complete or one with lens, shutter, and tripod) and

extra holders as desired if film be not used. Plates or film.

A ruby or orange dark-room lamp.

Five or six deep trays of rubber, porcelain, or agate ware.

Prepared developer, or chemicals, scales, and graduated glasses to prepare same from formula furnished with plates and film.

Several pounds of hyposulphite of soda (commonly called "hypo").

A few ounces of bisulphite of soda.

A negative drying rack.

Six printing frames (with glasses if film is used).

A packet of aristotype paper, either mat surface or glossy, same size as plates.

A fifteen-grain tube of chloride of gold.

An ounce of bicarbonate of soda.

A few glossy ferrotype plates.

A print roller.

Cards, paste, brush, trimming form and tool, and lintless blotters.

Flashlight powder for indoor work.

A negative washing box or crate, a rubber hypo box, and a cutting machine will be very serviceable also, but are luxuries rather than necessities.

In purchasing the camera no money that is spent upon a fine lens will be regretted, as finer work will result, and with a choice anastigmat lens pictures may be obtained under almost any conditions of weather and in light that would prohibit satisfactory results with an ordinary lens. Portraits are much better rendered with a high-grade lens. Good tools are of special advantage to the beginner, who naturally wishes to obtain excellent results immediately.

If a hand camera is chosen, one constructed for using both plates and the new film which can be inserted in the camera in the field will be found most serviceable; four by five-inch and five by seven-inch pictures are the popular sizes and the cost of such a camera may be from twelve dollars to fifty or a hundred.

While hand cameras are in great demand, the tripod camera is now to be had in extremely light and compact form, and, though unsuitable for street scenes or views in public places, is becoming very

popular again, as, if used with slow plates, most gratifying results ensue and subsequent operations after the exposure of two or three seconds are easier and more certain. A tripod camera with a fine lens and perhaps an instantaneous shutter, taking pictures six and one half by eight and one half inches, will be found most excellent, though the smaller sizes are also perfectly satisfactory.

Hand cameras ordinarily have focus scales upon them, so it is only necessary to estimate the distance from camera to subject and set the pointer to the figure corresponding to the number of feet, and by peering in the finder, a recessed screen upon which the view is shown in miniature, the view as described is selected and the shutter released. With tripod cameras the operation of focusing is conducted under a black cloth of rubber or velvet, thrown over the camera and head so that the image (which will be seen reversed upon the ground-glass back) may be brought into focus by moving the lens in or out until sharp and distinct.

The beginner should learn the fundamental principles of composition and try to stand in such place when taking a view that the general outlines of the scene conform to some accepted form of composition; not too exactly, to make the effect look strained for, the means too apparent, but enough so that it shall be a picture. The success or failure of a picture does not depend upon how much matter is included, necessarily, but upon how that matter is disposed. A knowledge of the light value of colors will also be exceedingly useful to the photographer, who will then be able to judge better in exposing plates and in conceiving how a view will look in monochrome.

If cartridge film be used, no dark room will be necessary in loading the camera, but if plates are to be exposed, the holders must be filled in a dark room in which no rays of white light enter. The dull side of plates should be outward. The camera loaded, a view is sought, and, after thorough reconnoitering to see that the best possible outlook is selected, the exposure is made,

care being taken to level the camera, as otherwise straight lines will be distorted, unless the plate is maintained in a perpendicular position by the use of a swing back which is provided on the better cameras. Views are usually taken with the source of light behind or to either side of the camera. Portraits should be taken in a diffuse light. Indoor work, except with flashlight, should be shunned by beginners, as the light is uncertain and is often puzzling even to experts.

A plate or film or two having been exposed, development of the hidden image is in order. Repairing to the dark room, plentifully illuminated by ruby or deep orange light from the lamp, pour out sufficient developing solution in one of the trays to cover the plate well, and immerse the plate or film (film should first be soaked in water until limp) therein, dull side uppermost. The plate has undergone no change of appearance, no sign betrays the presence of the image, it is of a uniform creamy tint. After placing the plate in the developer, rock the tray gently and occasionally brush the plate over with a tuft of cotton wet with developer, to prevent bubbles gathering and causing spots. After a few minutes the white parts of the view will commence to appear as black, hence the name, negative, and the whole plate will gradually become darker and darker until almost all the white parts have blackened over. Insufficient developing is a common fault with beginners and should be avoided, as good prints cannot be made from an under-developed plate.

When the image is clearly seen upon the back of the plate, the white parts entirely or almost entirely blackened over, and the flame of the lamp dimly if at all visible through the sky portion when held close to the lamp, development is about correct and the negative is ready to be "fixed," as the operation of dissolving all unused sensitive silver is termed. Have prepared a bath composed of hypo-soda one half pound and bisulphite of soda one ounce, dissolved in one quart of water; this solution is kept constantly on hand and renewed

from time to time. Immerse the plate in the hypo solution and allow it to remain there until all trace of milkiness has cleared away from the back, when it is fixed and can be taken into daylight for examination.

After twenty minutes' washing in running water or an hour's soaking in a large tray of water frequently changed, the negative is placed upon the rack to dry. Thorough washing is necessary to remove all traces of hypo-soda, which would soon ruin the plate if not washed out. Trays used for fixing must not be used for any other purpose, as hypo-soda contaminates and spoils other solutions if even a trace exists in a tray or if it is introduced from the fingers. The hypo tray must be plainly labeled and the hands should be rinsed and wiped after immersion in hypo solution. A rubber hypo tank, holding a dozen plates vertically, is a great convenience and also gives the best results. A zinc washing box or a metal rack that can be sunk in a pail of water will facilitate proper washing of the negative, and either is worth having.

After the negative has thoroughly dried, the back is rubbed clean with a damp cloth, and, after filling in any holes in it, caused by dust, bubbles, or defects, with India ink touched lightly on the spot with a finely pointed brush, the negative is placed, gelatine side up, in a printing frame, and sensitive aristo paper, either mat surface or glossy, is laid upon it, sensitive side down, and the back of the frame clamped in. It is now ready to print. If the negative is quite thin when looked through, printing in the shade will give the best results, but if of proper density, offering good resistance to the light, it may be put directly in the sun. The progress of the print can be watched and noted by frequent examination, opening but half of the back of the frame at a time and turning up the paper for inspection. If simply a proof is desired, the print is removed from the frame when of a pleasing depth. Proofs fade very rapidly, however, and it is better to print deep and tone the paper. As the print loses several shades of depth in the toning and fixing operations it is necessary to print very much deeper than

is desired in the finished print. Different makes of paper vary in the amount of overprinting required, but all need some overprinting, and after a few trials one becomes accustomed to judging how great a loss of depth will ensue and can make the print accordingly.

When all the negatives are printed from, remove the prints from the box where they have been kept to protect them from the light, and, subduing the illumination of the room if at all intense, throw all the prints in a deep tray of water, turning them now and then and changing the water until the prints no longer turn it milky. They are now ready to tone, which consists of depositing a thin film of gold upon the silver image, gold-plating it, as it were, in order to secure a pleasing color and a permanent picture.

Dissolve the fifteen-grain tube of gold in fifteen fluid ounces of water, measuring it with the graduated glass. Should the water be at all alkaline, the gold will have to be dissolved in distilled water, which can be obtained at the chemists. Label this bottle "gold stock." To tone a dozen or less four by five prints prepare the following bath: Pour out half an ounce of the gold solution into the graduated glass and add of the bicarbonate of soda about half as much as can be conveniently picked up on a ten-cent piece; dissolve it thoroughly, and then add eight ounces of water and pour the fluid in a tray reserved for toning. Now pass the prints into this tray rapidly and turn them from bottom to top constantly. After a few minutes the prints, which were of a brick-red color, begin to change and acquire a brown color, followed soon by a rich purple. At this stage they are removed to a tray of water and after slight washing are left for fifteen minutes in a bath composed of one ounce of hypo-soda to twenty of water in order to dissolve away every trace of sensitive silver, which, of course, would affect their permanence.

After fixing the prints they must be washed in running or frequently changed water to thoroughly eliminate the hypo, which if left upon them would cause dis-

coloration and ultimate fading away. If the paper used is the mat surface variety so popular at present it is often subjected first to a short toning in gold and afterward in platinum, in which it acquires a jet-black tone greatly esteemed by many. It is afterward fixed and washed as described, and, after surface blotting, is laid out upon blotters, face up, to dry, after which it is trimmed and suitably mounted.

Glossy paper is usually trimmed to the size desired before toning, and after toning and fixing, when washed, the prints are laid in a pile, face down, on a sheet of glass comfortably large, and the water expelled by rolling them with the rubber roller. To the back of the top print paste is applied evenly but none too generously, and, raising one corner with a knife-blade, the print is lifted off the pile, laid on a card, a blotter placed over the face of it, and it is rolled with the roller until even contact is secured. A very high gloss may be obtained after the mounted prints are dry by rolling them through a hot burnisher. It is hardly worth while to own a burnisher, as photographers will generally perform this service at a very modest rate. If the print is desired unmounted, it is laid face down upon the glossy side of a ferrotype plate and rolled into smooth contact. When dry it will fall off or can be readily peeled off and will have a brilliant *glacé* finish.

If toning and fixing the prints be carried out in the manner directed there need be no doubt of their permanence, but if toned and fixed in one operation the prints will fade. A solution called "combined toner

and fixer," which is sold and often recommended at supply stores, is sometimes popular with beginners. It should, however, never be used when permanent pictures are desired.

Another very popular printing process which is simplicity itself in working is the platinotype, a ready prepared paper of both rough and smooth textures which, after printing, is brought out in a solution sold by the makers and fixed in dilute hydrochloric acid. The process is a very rapid one, a hundred prints being readily made in an hour from a dozen negatives, and it has the additional merit of being absolutely permanent. The paper yields jet-black tones.

Ferro-prussiate, or "blue" paper is the most simple of all the wealth of printing processes at the photographer's command, it being only necessary to print the paper until quite bronzed in the shadows and then simply wash in water till the white parts are pure, then dry. The prints are blue and white and not usually very effective.

The absorbing interest of the necessary operations required to produce a finished picture, from the exposing of the plate to the mounting of the print, is the only thing connected with the fascinating art that belittles all attempts at description; no pen can do it justice. It is not a craze or fad, this amateur photography, it is a delightful every-day pastime, affording all who pursue it the keenest of pleasure, the discovery of many things hitherto unobserved in nature, besides a definite result for the expenditure of time and money which few other pleasures afford.

CHINA PAINTING IN AMERICA.

BY MRS. L. VANCE-PHILLIPS.

THE Centennial celebrated at Philadelphia in 1876 may be fairly said to date the beginning of the strong interest which American women have taken in the decoration of china. The exhibits made by foreign countries at that time suggested to women, already interested in the

study of art, that china offered a surface of special beauty and presented an unlimited field in which to carry out artistic ideas.

China affords an almost infinite variety of art objects, the usefulness and beauty of which appeal to all women of artistic taste. This attraction has brought together in a most

stimulating and healthful association the energetic bread-winner with a desire for congenial and remunerative employment, the intelligent housewife with her few leisure hours, and the talented woman of means with a taste for the artistic and ample time for its cultivation.

The Ceramic Congress of 1893 reported twenty-five thousand women in America known to be actively engaged in ceramic work. The estimate was made from reports of dealers, clubs, and teachers. With the number yearly increasing, the importance of this line of art work is at once recognized. A few men have with marked success taken up the work of teacher and decorator, yet women have been the chief supporters and most enthusiastic devotees in the field of ceramics. To them chiefly belongs the large and permanent interest felt in the work. In the first years that china painting was practiced the interest was so intense as to give rise to the belief that it was to be one of the passing "fads." That idea has been proven erroneous. Nothing has so aided in establishing permanency of interest as the seriousness with which the study of design and of appropriate adaptation has been entered into by the leaders and advanced workers in ceramic art. No one at all acquainted with the extent of the work and of the number actually engaged in the decoration of china doubts that this is one of the arts that has come to stay.

The china painting done in the years immediately following the Centennial Exhibition was, in a way, aimless. Little was thought of there being laws governing decoration or that there was importance to be attached to selection of motive. The love of color and of form, in the undisciplined mind, led to many curious styles of decoration. This condition gradually changed as thoughtful study came to the rescue.

Tableware has come to be regarded as needing a certain style of treatment, varied indeed, but conforming to certain general principles of ornament. Objects decorative rather than useful are less restricted as to style and management of the subject of decoration, yet are expected to conform to certain principles of composition and design. A really well-defined line has been established separating decorated porcelain from pictures on porcelain. The latter are intended to be used exactly the same as pictures done in oils or in water colors, and are therefore expected to be judged in the same way.

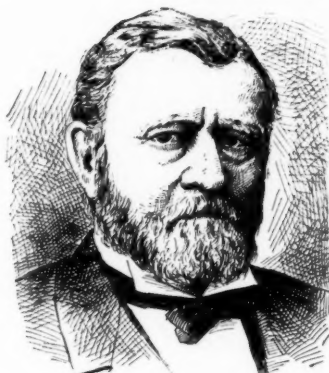
Portraits and miniatures in these matchless mineral colors, positively unchanged by centuries of exposure to light, seem the climax of what may be accomplished in china painting. So permanent are most delicate colors when set by fire that porcelain miniatures are justly regarded as choice works of art.

The mystery of fixing color by fire has proved to be one of the irresistible fascinations of this art. The few pioneer workers were at first satisfied to have their more or less wonderful creations fired in the brick kilns of the professional potters, of which there were a few located in different parts of the country. Amateur portable kilns, with an iron muffle or receptacle in which to place the china during the process of firing, were soon invented. These have been so perfected that charcoal, gas, gasoline, or coal oil may be used at pleasure as fuel, taking the place of wood used in firing the large brick kilns employed by professional firers.

Colors which were formerly difficult to obtain and only prepared in powder form are now conveniently sold in moist form. All possible aids are planned to assist those who desire to pursue the study of china painting either seriously or as a pleasant pastime.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

THE DEDICATION OF THE GRANT MONUMENT.



GENERAL ULYSSES S. GRANT.

THE dedication on April 27 of the new tomb built by citizens of New York for Ulysses S. Grant was made the occasion for a national land and naval demonstration of imposing pageantry. All through the city and along the river front floated resplendent decorations and in spite of inclement weather the streets were thronged with spectators pressing on to Riverside Park, where, overlooking the Hudson River, the tomb is located. Here about eleven o'clock were gathered General Grant's widow, his four children and his grandchildren, the president and vice-president of the United States, the governors and other high officials of many states, and representative diplomats of all the large nations in their official pomp, while below on the Hudson River appeared in two columns the men-of-war of the Atlantic Squadron and beyond them the flagships and battleships of England, Spain, France, and Italy, all aflame with colors. The exercises were presided over by Mayor Strong of New York. They included a brief address by President McKinley. Gen. Horace Porter, president of the Grant Monument Association, through

whose efforts largely the monument was erected, made the speech giving the tomb into the keeping of the city, and Mayor Strong received the monument for the city. During this program the military, veteran, civic, and naval forces had been gathering in line and, about fifty-five thousand strong, now began marching by the monument. The exercises closed with President McKinley's review of the naval forces, amid the din of whistles and the thunder of saluting guns.

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

No Englishman who has lived and died within the last half century fills so large a place in the hearts of Englishmen as Lincoln and Grant fill in the hearts of Americans. The honors paid in the imposing ceremonies yesterday will help to impress upon the minds of the living that faithful service of this free nation brings one reward at least which the proudest monarch might envy.

(Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

Less was made in public discussion of the naval display than four years ago; yet it was most suggestive. . . . With the exception of Gen. Benjamin Harrison, Major McKinley is the best occasional speaker we have had in the White House since the war.

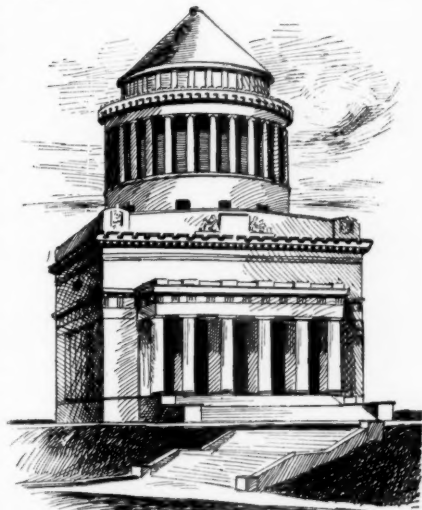
(Ind.) *The Ledger.* (Tacoma, Wash.)

The nation does well to honor as it is doing the memory of one raised up by its greatest emergency for its deliverance. The captain who renders his country illustrious has no need of noble ancestry.

(Dem.) *The Commercial Appeal.* (Memphis, Tenn.)

New York has found the Grant mausoleum so profitable that she now wants to remove the remains of Washington to Riverside Park and erect

a splendid monument there to the father of his country. This is a rather large contract, as it would be necessary to remove the entire state of Virginia along with it.



THE TOMB OF GENERAL GRANT.

* This department, together with the book "The Growth of the French Nation," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

(Rep.) *The Philadelphia Inquirer.* (Pa.)

The ceremonies in honor of General Grant in New York yesterday were a credit to the nation and the dead hero. The enthusiasm of the spectators



MRS. ULYSSES S. GRANT.

was unbounded. But, above all, the blue and the gray marched almost shoulder to shoulder in the effort to honor the man who led one to a brilliant victory and the other to overwhelming defeat! All else can be forgotten in that fact. All else will be forgotten in contemplating the influence which this great demonstration will have in still further promoting the most fraternal feeling between the North and South.

(Dem.) *The Argus.* (Albany, N. Y.)

Grant was the typical American warrior in that, having achieved the struggle for the Union, his voice was at once uplifted for peace. Other military heroes the world has known, but where was there one of like magnanimity?

(Ind.) *The Chicago Record.* (Ill.)

New York and the country are to be congratulated on the great pageant of yesterday, which will take rank with the funeral of Wellington and the second funeral of Napoleon among the military pageants of the world.

(Rep.) *The Inter Ocean.* (Chicago, Ill.)

Never in the history of the world has a spectacle so full of meaning been witnessed. The testimony of Americans to the great central figure of the war was not alone in the magnificent monument, but in the million or more of people who crowded about it and in the ceremonies of the dedication. It was a significant picture in a splendid setting, and will go on the scroll of history illuminated by the kindly light of a fine national spirit.

(Ind.) *The Tribune.* (Salt Lake City, Utah.)

The dedicatory services in New York on Tuesday were most impressive. Nothing like it on this continent was ever witnessed before. It was General Grant's final vindication. Had he died the day

after the settlement at Appomattox his body would have had simple sepulcher, and it would, perhaps, have required a century to turn men's thoughts back to what he really did.

(Rep.) *The Kennebec Journal.* (Augusta, Me.)

In all estimates of the great men of American history three names that instantly pronounce themselves are Washington, Lincoln, and Grant. They were and are and ever will be worthy of their country's homage. They stand among the world's heroes, resplendent in genius and equally so in moral fiber and nobility of character.

(Dem.) *The Times.* (Hartford, Conn.)

It was the grandest pageant ever witnessed in New York, while the war vessels of three or four European nations, and the white navy of Rear-Admiral Bunce, graced the North River for two miles up and down in front of the great tomb of the dead soldier.

(Rep.) *The Kansas Capital.* (Topeka.)

The moral qualities of General Grant shone forth as resplendent as his military genius. General Grant has been underrated as a statesman. His administration stands among the greatest in our history for what it attempted and achieved in diplomacy, of which President Grant was the chief factor. As president he showed the same executive ability that marked his genius at the head of the armies.

(Rep.) *The Mail and Express.* (New York, N. Y.)

One of the most encouraging symptoms of the Grant dedication day was that many of the crowds who came to town to view the ceremony prolonged their stay and made a great many purchases. It is reported also that the residents of New York



GENERAL HORACE PORTER,
President of the Grant Monument Association.

opened their own purse-strings with a freedom that the shopkeepers have not seen for three years. These are unmistakable harbingers of returning prosperity.

THE TURKO-GRECIAN WAR.



GENERAL SMOLENITZ.
Commander of Greek Forces in Thessaly.

THIS month the campaign in Crete has been eclipsed by the greater contests in Thessaly and Epirus. On April 6 the powers notified Greece and Turkey that should war break out the aggressor would not be allowed to profit thereby. On April 17 Turkey declared war. Simultaneously, if indeed, not a few hours previously, the Turkish commander-in-chief, Edhem Pasha, led an attack against the Greeks under General Smolenitz at Nezeros, Thessaly (near the Greek headquarters at Larissa), but was repulsed. Repeated encounters without great advantage to either side occurred until April 24, when a battle at Mati, near Milouna Pass, resulted in the retreat of the Greeks from Tyrnavo and Larissa to Pharsalos. These defeats together with losses in Epirus enraged the Athenian populace and on April 27 King George dismissed Premier Delyannis and called M. Ralli as premier to form a new cabinet. The new ministry had two of its members investigate the situation in Thessaly and then announced that Greece would continue the war. Meanwhile the situation in Epirus grew worse and at the approach of Osman Pasha with thirty thousand Turkish troops, on April 30, the Greeks concentrated at Arta to await help from their fleet. But now fortune seemed to turn from the Turks' eastern army. General Smolenitz' Greek forces on April 30 and again on May 5 won a victory at Velesino, eight miles west of Volo, and on May 6 repulsed the Turks at Pharsalos with great slaughter. At the battle of Pharsalos the crown prince and Prince Nicholas fought in the front ranks and after the battle received an ovation from the whole army. On May 11 Greece accepted the conditions of mediation proffered by the powers. The probable terms of settlement will be autonomy for Crete and the payment by Greece of a war indemnity.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

When the time comes for arranging the terms of peace between Greece and Turkey we shall again be reminded that we have been witnessing the curious spectacle of two completely bankrupt nations going to war with each other. Neither will be found in a position to be able to pay the other a money indemnity.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

It would not be to the interest of the Turkish Empire to crush Greece utterly, because then Turkey would have no one to play against the Slavs in Thrace and Macedonia. Her game is to keep the Greek and Slav races, which cordially hate each other, evenly balanced, the one against the other. In that way she assures her own safety.

San Francisco Chronicle. (Cal.)

The prospect of an early peace between Greece and Turkey rather "goes against the grain" in the wheat pit, but will be welcomed by every one except the speculators who were looking for a few months of prosperous carnage.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The misfortune of the Greeks was the absence of a capable commander who might, even under the disadvantages of bad organization and inadequate material, with the active cooperation of the fleet, have gained a defensible foothold beyond the frontier. The political influences at work from Athens, however, were fatal.



EDHEM PASHA.
Commander-in-Chief of the Turkish Forces
in Thessaly.

Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

It is the Turks and Greeks who are spending blood and treasure, but it is the six powers who will fix the terms of peace. It is as if a cocking-main or dog fight were going on in Greece.

The Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)

The Greeks outside of Greece are giving a fine object-lesson in patriotism. They are scattered all over Southern Europe, and although they do not owe military service, they are hurrying home in considerable numbers to join the army.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

The Turk is in Greece as a sort of protégé of the great nations of Europe, which call themselves enlightened and Christian. These nations are morally,



M. RALLI.
The New Greek Premier.

if not actually, responsible for the atrocities which the Turks may perpetrate in the Grecian campaign, as the latter are there by their sufferance.

The Ledger. (Tacoma, Wash.)

The king of Greece has probably saved his throne

by getting the revolutionary element of his kingdom to the front, where they will do the least harm.

The Evening Star. (Washington, D. C.)

He [King George] did not plunge an unsuspecting population into war against a powerful enemy. That population went to war with its eyes wide open, and anxious to fight the powerful Turk for what it considered was right and almost holy. So that if it shall turn now and rend the king in the hour of gloom, it will forfeit a great share of the admiration its first step has excited.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

The result of the war may be the overthrow of the monarchy as well as the defeat of the Greek armies.

The Chicago Evening Post. (Ill.)

Greece is defeated, but history will hardly look upon this defeat as a humiliation. Perhaps the "concert" will suffer more in the ultimate judgment than humbled and disgraced Greece.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

If the demands of Turkey are acceded to, then the powers have committed the crime of the century.

The Inter Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

Advantage has been taken of the Greek situation to entuse new spirit in the Mohammedans everywhere. This is a matter in which Europe is more interested than Greece.

GREATER NEW YORK CHARTER A LAW.

GOVERNOR BLACK'S signing the Greater New York charter gives to the United States a metropolis which in population and area is the second city in the world. On April 9 the city authorities returned the bill from the mayors to the state assembly, when it was found to have been vetoed by Mayor Strong of New York, notwithstanding his speech in favor of the act, and approved by the other mayors and councils. On April 12 the assembly passed the charter over Mayor Strong's veto by a vote of 106 to 32. It then took up the supplemental bills also disapproved by Mayor Strong. The first, concerning the election of New York city officers, it passed by a vote of 85 to 21 and the second, regulating the election of supervisors in Queens borough, by a vote of 87 to 22. The latter measure had not been returned by the mayors of Long Island and of Brooklyn at the expiration of the fifteen day limit. The next morning the assembly notified the state senate of its action and the senate passed the bill within ten minutes. On April 14 the bill was delivered to Governor Black. He gave it his signature on May 5, thus making it a law in one year lacking a week after Governor Morton signed the consolidation act authorizing the appointment of a commission to draft the charter. The new law is to take effect on January 1, 1898.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

It seemed to us that every act suggestive of coercion should be scrupulously avoided, to the end that all the people might realize that they had been treated with perfect candor and fairness, whatever they might think about the advantages of consolidation. This course has not been pursued. Far too little time was given to the Charter Commission for the performance of its enormous task, and largely in consequence of that fact its work contains some radical defects and many minor blemishes.

(Dem.) The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)

If the Democrats are wise enough to ignore past

differences of opinion on national questions and get together on state and local issues there is no doubt that the first administration of Greater New York will be Democratic.

(Rep.) The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The Republican majority in the assembly at Albany did itself no credit last night by rushing through the Greater New York charter without reading the message from Mayor Strong accompanying his formal disapproval. The document was addressed to the assembly, and, coming from the mayor of the greatest city in the country, there was every reason why it should have been courteously received.

(Rep.) *The Denver Republican.* (Col.)

The proposed law certainly contained a great many very objectionable features, and there can be no doubt that it never should have been passed by the legislature.

(Ind.) *The Chicago Record.* (Ill.)

Greater New York will not be an accomplished

fact until January 1. That will give Chicago ample time to grow away from the big combination.

(Rep.) *The Republican Standard.* (Bridgeport, Conn.)

Mayor Strong has certainly the idea with regard to such matters that is most advanced, and it is a little strange that the framers of the charter did not perceive and adopt it.

THE ANGLO-AMERICAN ARBITRATION TREATY FAILS.

THE great question whether this nation shall perpetuate peace by agreeing to the proposed general arbitration treaty with England or by adhering to its own traditional peace policy has been settled at last. On May 5 the Senate refused by a vote of 43 to 26 to ratify the treaty negotiated by Sir Julian Pauncefote, England's ambassador to the United States, and Secretary of State Olney and signed by them at Washington, D. C., on January 11, 1897. The total number of votes cast was 69, there being 19 senators who did not respond, so that 3 affirmatives were wanting to make the two-thirds majority (of the senators present) required by the Constitution for the ratification of treaties.

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

No such instrument was needed to demonstrate the peaceful disposition of the American people and their sincere attachment to the principle of arbitration. The record of the United States on that score is secure beyond challenge.

(Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

The chances of war with Great Britain over any disputed question within the range of probability or possibility are not increased to the slightest extent by the failure of this pet scheme of unreasoning sentiment.

(Rep.) *Baltimore American.* (Md.)

There will be disappointment among thousands of Americans who regarded this treaty as a distinct step in advance, but there was an unmistakable feeling among the practical and experienced public men that the treaty gave entirely too much to Great Britain.

(Dem.) *The Boston Globe.* (Mass.)

The course of the American Senate in this matter will effectually work against any renewal of agitation in England for a general treaty of arbitration with this country for a long time to come. This does not mean, however, that arbitration

would not be invoked as a means of settling any ordinary question that may arise between the two great English-speaking nations.

(Ind.) *The Chicago Record.* (Ill.)

The insincerity of the Senate's performances as regards the treaty has been manifest at almost every stage of the long debate over its ratification or rejection. The specious plea that the treaty was a British trick to tie the hands of this country is sufficiently disproved by the fact that Senator Hoar's amendment excluding all questions affecting foreign or domestic policy was adopted by a vote of forty to fifteen.

(Rep.) *The Republican Standard.* (Bridgeport, Conn.)

Perhaps it is as well that the treaty failed; it was amended out of all its original shape and form and had nothing but the name of arbitration to recommend it.

(Dem.) *Baltimore Sun.* (Md.)

The senators who have wrecked a great treaty to gratify personal and political resentments may rest assured that, while they have temporarily obstructed the progress of the arbitration movement, the cause is too great to be destroyed.

TO PROTECT THE FUR SEALS.

IT is not for lack of knowledge of the facts in the case that England is dilatory in seeking better pelagic sealing regulations. English and American experts investigated the subject last year and both reported that some remedial measures ought to be agreed upon by the two governments. Taking the initiative in such a move on April 8, President McKinley appointed John W. Foster of Indiana and Charles L. Hamlin of Massachusetts as a "special commission with plenipotentiary powers to negotiate another agreement with Great Britain for a better protection of seal life in Bering Sea." On April 10 Secretary of State Sherman sent to the English government a decided demand for the immediate cessation of the indiscriminate butchery of seals in Alaskan waters, accompanied by a request for an international conference on the Alaskan sealing question. At last accounts, on April 30, the British premier, Lord Salisbury, declined to arrange such a conference because of the expense it would involve.

The St. James Gazette. (London, England.)

It is quite possible this matter may become as serious as the Venezuelan dispute. We are bound to support the Canadians' reasonable claim, and the prospect might make us regret the failure of the general arbitration treaty, did it not show how small respect Washington feels for arbitration.

The Times. (London, England.)

It appears premature, if not unseemly, to start a diplomatic campaign sixteen months before the stipulated time for re-examination has arrived. To demand that the award shall now be set aside in accordance with the contention of one party to the controversy would strike a very serious blow at the principle of arbitration.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Having scrupulously lived up to the letter and spirit of the Paris award, this government now seeks to fulfil the one remaining item, namely, the further and more perfect regulation of pelagic sealing. The

Paris tribunal decreed that Great Britain and the United States should do this. A few years ago they attempted to do it. Regulations were adopted. But these have proved to be insufficient and unsatisfactory. Both governments recognized that fact. British as well as American experts have been officially sent to investigate the matter. And now the United States takes the initiative in moving for joint action. That is all there is in it. There is not the slightest notion of denying or delaying settlement of the British claims. There is not the slightest notion of repudiating the Paris award, but only of more completely executing it.

Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

President McKinley, Secretary Sherman, and Secretary Gage keenly realize the value of our seal fisheries and are proceeding promptly and in the right way to protect that important interest. No better selection of special commissioners for the work could have been made.

ANGLO-VENEZUELAN TREATY RATIFIED.

AFTER considerable opposition the Venezuela Congress finally has ratified the treaty calling for settlement by arbitration of the boundary dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain. The ratification took place on April 7. It now remains to select a fifth member of the tribunal, who with the four (two for each side of the case) already appointed will meet in Paris and within six months report their decision.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

There can be little doubt that the evidence accumulated by our own High Commission will virtually decide the matter, as it includes not only the cases originally prepared by the counsel for Great Britain and Venezuela, but all the historical material specially collected by the high commissioners at The Hague and Madrid. Yet this in turn is subject to the agreement that holding land for fifty years shall establish title. And so will end a controversy that will be memorable in history for having practically enforced the Monroe Doctrine upon Great Britain, and for having asserted and maintained the hegemony of the United States upon the American continents.

The Inter Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

It may now be set down as settled that if any European and American nations have trouble the right

and duty of the United States to step in as a peacemaker will not be disputed.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

As this happy result flows from our benevolent intervention, we are entitled to a moderate measure of exultation in it. We extend our congratulations to the reconciled nations, and see no reason why they should fall out again for some time to come.

The Pioneer Press. (St. Paul, Minn.)

History fails to record another instance of one nation voluntarily offering and entering upon an impartial settlement of an international difference that only indirectly concerned it.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Conservative opinion recognizes the Monroe Doctrine as the greatest bulwark of Spanish-American independence against overcrowded Europe. The treaty is quite safe.

THE NEW TARIFF BILL.

SINCE passing the House on March 31 the Dingley Tariff Bill has been practically made over by the Finance Committee of the United States Senate, to which it was referred after its receipt from the Lower House. The amended bill was reported by the Finance Committee May 4, and was placed on the Senate calendar. It entirely eliminates the House "retroactive amendment" changing the date for the bill to take effect to July 1, 1897, and imposes a number of emergency duties to expire by limitation on January 1, 1900. The reciprocity section is stricken out and in its place a duty is laid on articles having an export bounty. The sugar schedule is entirely new, the rates on wool are greatly lowered, and hundreds of amendments have been made which are less conspicuous because of the changes from the House classification.

(Ind.) *The Ledger.* (Tacoma, Wash.)

The tariff bill is at last out of the Finance Committee of the Senate, where it has been kept much longer than there was any apparent need for keeping it. It does not seem to have improved by its stay there.

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

Many changes are certainly of real merit, and others may upon examination of data prove to be, which at first appear needless. But there will be disappointment throughout the country that the measure is open to criticism in some particulars about which public opinion will be sensitive.

(Dem.) *The Times.* (Hartford, Conn.)

The Republican leaders in Congress are evidently about to abandon the pretense they have maintained up to the present time that they mean to increase the revenues of the government by putting prohibitory duties on imports.

(Ind.) *The Washington Post.* (D. C.)

As a matter of fact we are inclined to think that the sub-committee has improved the original Dingley Bill in many respects.

(Rep.) *Denver Republican.* (Col.)

Prosperity will not return in consequence of the enactment of a new tariff, but free coinage men will be confronted by the contrary claims as long as the bill is not passed.

(Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

The bill finally agreed on may not be exactly what the House would prefer, or exactly what the Senate would prefer, but the desired votes to enact it will be obtained, because it cannot be otherwise than immeasurably better than the system it is to supersede.

(Ind.) *The Times-Democrat.* (New Orleans, La.)

The people voted for a protective tariff and the gold standard and they should have both.

TENNESSEE'S CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION.



JOHN W. THOMAS.
President of the Tennessee Exposition.

THE exposition at Nashville in honor of Tennessee's one hundredth anniversary of admission to the Union as a state opened auspiciously on May 1, having been delayed eleven months after the actual anniversary. The weather was fair and the attendance was estimated at between forty and fifty thousand. Many distinguished persons were present, including ex-Vice-President Stephenson and Gen. Ignacio Garfia, postmaster-general of the republic of Mexico. President McKinley in Washington, D. C., pressed the electric key which started the machinery at the exposition and the celebration was formally begun by the president of the enterprise, Mr. J. W. Thomas, of the Nashville, Chattanooga, and St. Louis Railway. The grounds are rich in historical associations and natural advantages, being situated on the scene of the battle of Nashville. Many buildings have been erected, the largest of which are the Auditorium, the Parthenon (the art gallery), the Commerce, Woman's, Agriculture, Machinery, Minerals and Forestry, Transportation, Children's, Historical, Government, Negro, and Railway Buildings. Illinois boasts the most beautiful state building and has the most commanding site. Appropriations

for the exposition were made as follows: Tennessee, \$50,000; Illinois, \$20,000; New York, \$12,000; Rhode Island, \$10,000; Ohio, \$10,000; Massachusetts, \$5,000; New Mexico, \$1,450; Utah, \$2,000; West Virginia, \$2,000; United States government building, \$27,000. Besides these provisions several states and cities, especially Louisville, Knoxville, and Memphis were announced to have special exhibits, and sixty cities to have municipal representation. The exposition will last for six months.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Had Tennessee as a state acted earlier the exposition would probably have been greater, but, even as it is, only the Philadelphia Centennial and the Columbian Exposition will surpass it in the United States in completeness of exhibits, and only the latter in architectural beauty and effect.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

Everything indicates that the exposition is to be interesting and successful, and it has the best wishes of every state in the Union, even if some of them, like Connecticut, have not done very much

to contribute to the display there to be made.

The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

Tennessee is the first of the states to celebrate the centennial of admission to the Union, by giving a great material, educational, moral, scientific, religious, and social exposition. Kentucky and Vermont preceded us into the Union, but neither of them celebrated their centennial in such a splendid style. We lead. We are the pioneer.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The most notable of the international expositions of the present year are two in number, one of them

at the capital of the state of Tennessee and the other at the capital of the kingdom of Belgium.

The Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

It required courage for Nashville to undertake to celebrate the anniversary in so elaborate a manner as by the great exposition of which the doors were opened yesterday. She has spent a great deal of money which she may not get back immediately, but in the long run she will profit by her courageous patriotism and enterprise.

The Inter Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

It is true that Tennessee was admitted into the

Union June 1, 1796, but this Nashville fair is nevertheless in fact as in name the Tennessee Centennial Exposition. Our Chicago fair was held four hundred and one years after the discovery of America, but all the same it was the World's Columbian Exposition.

The Commercial Appeal. (Memphis, Tenn.)

The opening of the Tennessee Centennial took place most auspiciously yesterday, and it promises to mark a new era in the state. Tennessee is a diamond in the rough. The tenth of her resources and wealth has never been told.

END OF THE SENATORIAL DEADLOCK IN KENTUCKY.

KENTUCKY's senatorial struggle of nearly two years' duration has resulted in the election of a sound money Republican, William J. Deboe, to replace Senator J. C. S. Blackburn, Democrat and free silver advocate. The regular caucus nominee of the Republicans was Dr. Hunter, but personal animosity, added to Senator Blackburn's stiff fight for reelection, jeopardized his chances for the senatorial seat, so finally he withdrew. Mr. Deboe was put in the field, and elected on April 28.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Of all the prolonged struggles over senatorships which have occurred in various state legislatures in the last few years this was in many of its features one of the most discreditable, yet its outcome, happily, is one of the best. It has not, save in its ending, reflected credit upon the state. But it ought to serve as an object-lesson to Kentucky and to all other states "how not to do it."

(Dem.) The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)

William J. Deboe may think his election as United States Senator from Kentucky yesterday is due to Republican harmony. But it isn't. It is due to Democratic inharmony.

(Ind.) The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

The election of a Republican from Kentucky to the United States Senate gives the Republicans a tie with the opposition, thus enabling them to organize that body with the aid of Vice-President Hobart. In the second place, Kentucky can now demand its share of patronage, as the president has refused to make Kentucky appointments until he

could consult with its senators, according to the precedent he has followed.

(Rep.) Baltimore American. (Md.)

The result of the Kentucky contest will be hailed with gratification by a large majority of the patriotic and thoughtful people of the country. The new senator lessens immeasurably the power of the silver phalanx in the Senate.

(Dem.) The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

The election of Senator Deboe in Kentucky gives the Republicans within one of a majority of the Senate as now constituted. But if Florida reelects Call, or sends some other Democrat in his place, there will be no possibility that the Republicans can obtain an absolute majority of all during the present Congress.

(Ind.) The Argonaut. (San Francisco, Cal.)

W. J. Deboe, the newly elected senator, is a young man of small means—in fact so poor that it is said he was unable to give the customary banquet to the legislature. However, his poverty will not hurt him.

THE NEW CANADIAN TARIFF RETALIATES.

CANADA's new tariff, made public on April 22, strikes at the tariff measures of many countries, including the United States Dingley Bill. The chief feature of the new law, which is a departure from any previous Canadian trade policy, is its double schedule. This provides for a general tariff on goods from all countries that do not admit Canadian goods free of duty or at minimum rates, and for a special tariff giving a large preference to goods of the countries that favor Canadian trade. In accordance with the special tariff, all British goods going to Canada on and after April 23, until July 1, 1898, are dutiable at 12½ per cent less than imports from other countries. On July 1, 1898, this preference is increased to 25 per cent. The new bill also provides against trusts and combines. In some respects the bill gives the United States a lower duty than did the old tariff, but it is the great discrimination in favor of English products that threatens our trade with Canada. Germany, Belgium, and other countries already have protested against the special tariff, claiming as treaty rights equal tariff privileges with England.

(Ind.) *Providence Journal*. (R. I.)

If the Washington government hold out against reciprocity, the British manufacturer will probably have a supreme position in the Canadian market.

(Rep.) *The Mail and Express*. (New York, N. Y.)

To grant a rebate of duties on imports of British goods would simply expose Canada to retaliatory measures upon the part of other countries, and the prospect of such a warfare has already frightened its supporters into something bordering on panic.

(Dem.) *The Sun*. (New York, N. Y.)

The Imperialist party in Canada are gleefully anticipating great and damaging consequences to the industry and commerce of this country from the impetus that will be given to the smuggling of English goods across the border; and some go so far as to pretend to believe that it will result in the complete demoralization of our fiscal system. . . .

But the American people will be heard from at the right time.

(Ind. Rep.) *The Transcript*. (Boston, Mass.)

On the whole the general tenor of the new tariff measures must be called moderate. It concedes the right of the American people to adopt what tariff laws they please in their own real or supposed interests, and claims for Canada the same right.

The Globe. (London, England.)

Canada leads the way in her thank offering for the blessings of liberty and security which she enjoys under British rule. Her action will not be in vain.

St. James' Gazette. (London, England.)

It is by far the most important news of the morning and leads us from the eastern question.

The Pall Mall Gazette. (London, England.)

Dingley threatened Canada and this is Canada's reply.

OUR NEW MINISTER TO TURKEY.

JAMES B. ANGELL, President McKinley's appointee for minister to Turkey, reported to the Senate on April 14, has had experience in foreign diplomacy as well as in American educational and editorial work. He has been professor of modern languages and literature in Brown University, Providence, R. I., editor of the *Providence Journal* during the Civil War, president of the University of Vermont, and president of the University of Michigan. During 1880-81 he was minister to China and negotiated our present trade and immigration treaties with the Chinese government. On his return home he resumed the presidency of the Michigan University, which position he now fills. He was one of the Bering Sea Commission appointed by President Harrison and was on the Deep Waterways Board in President Cleveland's second administration.



JAMES BURRILL ANGELL.
United States Minister to Turkey.

(Rep.) *Ohio State Journal*. (Columbus.)

There are indications that the new minister to the court of the sultan, President Angell of Michigan State University, may be *persona non grata* to the Porte. The issue does not involve President Angell's fitness, as that is conceded, but relates to his connection for many years with the missionary efforts of the Congregational Church. It ought

not to be to a man's disadvantage to be known as an active worker in church circles, and it is not in any country save Turkey. But there a minister from the United States who has been identified with missionary work is almost put on the black list.

(Ind.) *The Evening Post*. (New York, N. Y.)

Whatever course events may take in the Levant, we are certain to need at Constantinople a minister of the highest character and judgment and widest experience. These qualifications President Angell possesses in an unusual degree.

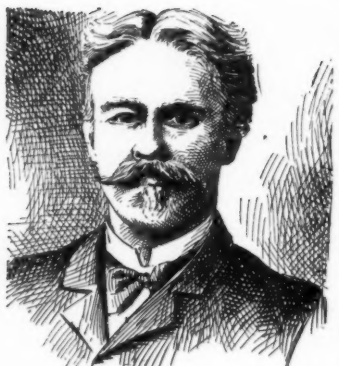
(Dem.) *The Sun*. (New York, N. Y.)

President Angell of the Michigan University is a man of brains, knowledge of the world, and diplomatic experience. Probably he will be more satisfactory, personally, to the good brethren than Terrell has been; although he is hardly more likely than Terrell to attempt to propagate the religion of love by means of artillery.

(Rep.) *The Philadelphia Inquirer*. (Pa.)

In case of a war between Turkey and Greece, the duties of the minister will be very arduous, but for these the new incumbent will be fully competent. He goes to a post where he will probably have more active work than any other of our diplomatic representatives. He is a man of the highest type.

PROFESSOR EDWARD D. COPE.



PROFESSOR EDWARD D. COPE.

THE great American naturalist, Prof. Edward D. Cope, died on April 12, at his home in Philadelphia, Pa. He was born in 1840 in Philadelphia and here studied medicine at the University of Pennsylvania and comparative anatomy at the Philadelphia Academy of Sciences. The latter study he continued in the Smithsonian Institution in 1859 and in Europe during 1863-64. In 1866 he took the chair of natural science in Haverford College, Pa. While here he became actively interested in the cretaceous greensands of New Jersey and was rewarded with the discovery of fifty-eight specimens previously unknown to science, including a large dinosaur. Then directing his attention to the Miocene formations of Maryland and North Carolina, he enriched science with many specimens of whale-like aquatic mammals. In 1868 he did classifying work for the Geological Survey of Ohio, and in 1870 went to Kansas on his first western tour of exploration. He returned with specimens of seventy-six species of fossil fishes and reptiles then unheard of in the world of science. In 1872 as vertebrate paleontologist for the Hayden

Geological Survey he led a party from Fort Bridge, Wyo., to examine the Eocene bad lands in the Green River region, securing eighty-three new specimens. This year he was elected a member of the National Academy of Sciences. The next year in northeast Colorado he found seventy-five new specimens, mostly of mammals. His explorations of New Mexico in 1874 and of the Jurassic beds of the Rocky Mountains in 1877 yielded him valuable specimens of backbone animals. Success also attended his expeditions into Montana, Nebraska, and Oregon. Professor Cope was conspicuous for his firm belief in the theory that consciousness is the leading factor in evolution. His most valuable service to science was his systematic revision of the classes Batrachia, Mammalia, and Reptilia. The books he has written on these subjects and his "Origin of the Fittest" are the best known of his more than three hundred and fifty published works. For a number of years he was editor-in-chief of the *American Naturalist*, and at the time of his death was president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. His wife and daughter survive him.

The Independent. (New York, N. Y.)

Of late years he has given special attention to the theoretical side of biology and has been recognized as perhaps the most philosophical student of evolution in this country. He led a reaction from the natural selection of Darwin, and his neo-Lamarckianism is adopted by a school of young biologists. For a number of years he has been one of those that have added distinction to the University of Pennsylvania.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

In zoology he has rounded up investigations

which began even before he entered paleontology, and include equally striking proofs of his genius as a comparative anatomist. As an evolutionary philosopher Professor Cope is widely known as the leader of the Neo-Lamarckian School in this country, and, as a historic parallel, it is noteworthy that in this sphere he has shown many of the brilliant qualities as well as certain of the deficiencies in logic which characterized the great French predecessor of Darwin. His duties and responsibilities as chief editor of the *American Naturalist* would alone have filled the time of an ordinary worker; but his capacity seemed perfectly tireless.

SITUATION IN THE MISSISSIPPI BASIN.

THE prolonged floods in the Mississippi river-basin threaten to add a wholesale loss of crops to the general devastation. On April 21 the submerged area below Vicksburg, Miss., was estimated to be over 20,000 square miles, in which the agricultural property was valued at \$90,176,177. In the flood of 1890, it will be recalled, the agricultural property destroyed was valued at not quite \$11,600,000. Since April 21 about 50,000 acres, much of it above Vicksburg, have been added to the flooded region. The levees have suffered the most havoc in Mississippi, though many serious crevasses have been reported elsewhere. The most damaging breaks occurred below Greenville on April 1, at Biggs on April 18, twenty miles below Natchez on April 19, at Shipland Landing on April 21, at the Hunt levees below Warsaw, Ill., on April 27, and at the Punt levee thirteen miles below Keokuk, Ia., also on April 27. On April 27 the waters in the Mis-

Mississippi tributaries still were rising and the Louisiana levees were beginning to give. The work of aiding the sufferers has been prosecuted with vigilance by the states themselves and by the federal government.

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

The prompt benefaction of the federal government will meet the immediate crisis as nothing else can. That passed, the states and the people will attend to all else.

(Dem.) *The Times-Democrat.* (New Orleans, La.)

To relieve the people of all responsibility for their levees and shoulder their responsibility and expense on the United States would, we believe, prove a fatal mistake in the end. What might be done is to demonstrate the responsibility of the United States and persuade it to contribute more liberally than it has done to this cause, arranging for the present system of cooperation.

(Ind.) *Providence Journal.* (R. I.)

The old plan of making each front proprietor responsible for his own levees, enlarged as it has been into the plan of making each district responsible for its river line, is one that has several practical advantages over the scheme of federal control. It may be, however, that the work has now become so expensive that the federal government may properly be asked for more pecuniary assistance than it has hitherto given.

(Rep.) *The Kansas City Journal.* (Mo.)

The Mississippi being a great national waterway, it is not only appropriate but imperative that the national government should keep its bed navigable, and at the same time protect the inhabitants of the valley against the destruction of its waters. If treated in a strictly scientific manner, some means less costly than the present ineffective methods could surely be found to control the annual overflow.

(Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

It is true that there are some eminent engineers who have no faith in the levee system, but they are not among those who have had to deal practically with the Mississippi problem. The alluvial areas bordering the lower river would be simply uninhabitable were it not for the protection afforded by an imperfect and incomplete system of levees. It is well that the general government is dealing with this great national concern, for it is too vast to be consistently and adequately handled by states or smaller communities.

(Ind.) *The Chicago Record.* (Ill.)

Certainly no time should be lost in determining upon the best method of guarding against these great floods, which, with the continued denudation of the forest areas, are likely to increase year by year in frequency and destructive effects.

(Rep.) *The Pioneer Press.* (St. Paul, Minn.)

It has been demonstrated by forestry experts that the wholesale destruction of forests has much to do with the conditions which permit the periodical overflow of large streams. That they have everything I—June.

to do with it is not claimed, for we know that when the forests were in their primeval conditions there were still great inundations along great waterways. But this item in the general scheme of improvement, in which all residents along the Mississippi should be interested, is the item which especially concerns Minnesota. She can and should give much attention to this phase of forestry science.

(Dem.) *The Scimitar.* (Memphis, Tenn.)

Strictly speaking from the traditional Democratic standpoint, the states affected by the flood should take care of their people in such circumstances, and it cannot be denied that they could do so if they would. *The Scimitar* does not wish to be understood as opposing such appeals or as reproaching the Democrats who respond to the calls of humanity without stopping to make objection based upon the theories of the party schemes of old. On the contrary *The Scimitar* joins their people in applauding them for so doing. It only instances the fact as additional evidence of the readiness of Democrats to subordinate theory to utility in time of emergency.

(Ind.) *The Argonaut.* (San Francisco, Cal.)

The extraordinary floods are increasing in proportion as the forests of the North are denuded, and the sudden drainage of half a continent has proved too much for the weak alluvial banks of the river below Cairo, while the vast recurring losses are beyond the powers of the localities directly affected to withstand.

(Rep.) *The Tribune.* (Minneapolis, Minn.)

If the demands of the southern states lying along the lower Mississippi and its tributaries are to be granted, the government will need an ample revenue. The southern representatives and senators should bear this fact in mind when voting upon the Dingley Bill. The people of the North would not begrudge the money required to render the Mississippi and its principal tributaries safe from flood, if the engineers can agree upon a feasible scheme to accomplish this result.

(Ind. Dem.) *The Banner.* (Nashville, Tenn.)

The control of these levees devolves as naturally upon the government as does interstate commerce or the supervision of the mails. They are public institutions, and as they affect different states and communities that have no power of acting in concert they should come under the purview of the federal government. When these levees are left to the control of separate states and communities there are naturally local jealousies and conflicting interests which lead to bickerings and cross purposes rather than to concert of action.

(Rep.) *Baltimore American.* (Md.)

It is likely that the states endangered by the water would be willing to borrow the money to save

the property of the people if they saw any way to pay it back. It would be economy to do so, but the matter must be undertaken by the national government, if it is ever to be successfully accomplished.

(*Dem.*) *Democrat and Courier.* (*Natchez, Miss.*)

This is no time for further dispute as to the methods to be adopted in the future for protection to the Mississippi Valley by the states or the dwellers and sufferers therein, but it is a time for the interposition of the one power, the national power, to assume the mighty task of control which has hitherto defied the efforts of the states and the people.

(*Rep.*) *The Philadelphia Inquirer.* (*Pa.*)

But if there should be no decided change for the better in the situation before the end of the present month, it is to be feared that there will be an accentuation of the present suffering, and that measures of relief will not only have to be largely extended, but kept up the summer through.

(*Rep.*) *Ohio State Journal.* (*Columbus.*)

Whatever the abstract justice of the matter, it will be practically better for the river states to keep the levee system under their own control.

(*Rep.*) *Denver Republican.* (*Col.*)

It is doubtful if the planters in the flooded district will be able to put in a crop this season, for the flood may not retire soon enough, and this will make the disaster all the greater. The experience of this year, added as it must be to the experience of other flood years, should remove all doubt in the mind of the government concerning the need of adopting some other system of river protection than that involved in the construction of levees.

(*Rep.*) *The Journal.* (*Detroit, Mich.*)

What a rebuke it is to those sticklers for state's rights, who are still preaching state supremacy, to see the federal government extend a helping hand to a state in distress! And yet a state may be in distress by reason of an insurrection or riots, as well as floods. The state's rights sticklers want the federal government to keep its hand off and let every state settle its own insurrection itself, even when they involve the interests of the national government, but not one of them protests when the federal government recommends and Congress votes appropriations to relieve a state whose people are suffering from the effects of some great calamity.

(*Rep.*) *The State Journal.* (*Topeka, Kan.*)

It would be a good time for the present Congress to drop everything else in the way of improvement of rivers and harbors and devote the sum which will be appropriated for that purpose wholly to the Mississippi. Such an expenditure would give work to a large number of men who need it, and could be done cheaply, owing to the low price of labor brought about by so many idle persons.

(*Rep.*) *The Mail and Express.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

To repair the waste places which this appalling overflow of the waters has left in the Southwest is nationalism in its best and highest sense. It is a patriotic recognition of the indestructible unity of our material interests as a nation, in which the whole structure of the political commonwealth is grounded. This is the lofty level upon which President McKinley has projected his administrative policy.

U. S. SENATOR DANIEL W. VOORHEES.



U. S. SENATOR DANIEL W. VOORHEES.

THE death of Daniel Woolsey Van Voorhees, United States senator from Indiana, at his home in Washington, D. C., on April 10, ends the career of one who has been conspicuous in the nation's politics for more than a quarter of a century. Mr. Voorhees was born in Butler County, O., on September 26, 1827, and two months later moved with his parents to a farm in the valley of the Wabash River in Fountain County, Ind. Here he grew to manhood, working hard on the farm till 1845, when he went to the Indiana Asbury (now DePauw) University. At his graduation, in 1849, he studied law and in 1851 began its practice at Covington, Ind. By President Buchanan's appointment he became United States district attorney for Indiana in 1858, in which capacity he served till 1861, when he went to Congress. He made his debut in the House as the "Tall Sycamore of the Wabash." For five consecutive terms he served in Congress, being one of the House leaders for the cause of slavery during the Civil War conflict. Then being defeated for reelection he held no public office from 1873 to 1877. In 1877, upon the death of Oliver P. Morton, Mr. Voorhees entered the Senate by appointment to the vacancy. From that time till a month ago, when failing health compelled him to retire from public life, a period of nearly twenty years, he has been in the Senate continuously. In 1893 he was made chairman of the Committee

on Finance, having been for years a champion of the greenback and of free silver coinage. He held this position nominally till December, 1895, though early in 1894 he lost the leadership of the Democratic majority, owing to his support, in the extraordinary session of 1893, of Mr. Cleveland's policy in securing the repeal of the silver purchasing clause of the Sherman Act of 1890. Mr. Voorhees was the leading spirit in the reconstruction of the Library of Congress. Aside from his career in politics he had a national reputation as an eloquent and successful lawyer in the criminal courts. Several years ago his wife died. He is survived by four children.

The Inter Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

He easily was the greatest stump orator that the Democrats of the West, or perhaps of the nation, have had during the present century, and as a successful advocate in criminal cases he was without a rival. Had he remained in the practice great wealth surely would have flowed to him. During the war he was more in sympathy with secession than with the Union, and was a staunch advocate of the "peculiar institution" of slavery. He grew more liberal as he grew older, and, though to the last a Democrat of the "old-fashioned stripe," was found voting "aye" on all propositions that looked toward the benefit of the veterans of the Union, or for relief of their widows and orphans.

He was a man of great heart, of unaffected sympathy with the poor, strong in friendship, and not

implacable in enmity. He was an advocate rather than a pleader, both in law and in politics. His faults were not few, but his virtues were many.

The Seattle Post-Intelligencer. (Wash.)

Few will regard him as a statesman, but as a politician who kept at the front through the arts of a politician he was an eminent success, as is evidenced by twenty-five years' active service in Congress.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

He was about as uncompromising a partisan as could well be imagined and his convictions on many public questions were as unsound as they were firmly held. There was never any suspicion regarding his personal integrity and one could not but admire the vigor and resourcefulness with which he battled for his side.

THE BIMETALLIC COMMISSION APPOINTED.

ACTING in accordance with a measure of the last Congress approved on March 3, President McKinley appointed, on April 12, three commissioners to represent this country at an international bimetallic conference to be called at some future time. They are Senator Edward O. Wolcott, of Colorado, General Charles J. Paine, of Boston, Mass., and Mr. Adlai E. Stephenson, of Illinois, Democratic ex-vice-president of the United States. In the campaign of last fall, Senator Wolcott supported the Republican ticket with its gold standard plank, and Mr. Stephenson identified himself with Bryan and the Chicago platform, although both appointees were well known as advocates of bimetallism; General Paine was a McKinley man. He favors bimetallism based on international agreement, but is said to be ranked with the sound money adherents. General Paine, it will be remembered, accompanied Senator Wolcott on his European trip of last winter in the interests of bimetallism. The commissioners are not expected to begin their labors abroad before May 8.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

If it is once made absolutely clear that the United States has done forever with the effort to fix and maintain the value of silver all by itself, and thus to carry the monetary burdens of the whole world, and will hold fast to the gold standard unless European nations are prepared for some bimetallic agreement, this at least will be accomplished, that the great cause of European refusal in the past would be removed. One other thing will be accomplished. The American people will be shown precisely where the obstacle to international agreement lies, and why agreement is prevented, if at all. That demonstration will have an important influence upon public opinion here.

(Dem.) Baltimore American. (Md.)

President McKinley has acted wisely in making the bimetallic commission a radical one. There can be no complaint hereafter that the bimetallists

have not been given ample opportunity to achieve their purpose.

(Ind.) Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The appointment is simply for political effect, an attempt to keep the silver Republicans quiet for a while longer. There is no conference called for these commissioners to attend, and there is not likely to be one in the near future. Foreign governments are not going to pull our chestnuts out of the fire, though that is all that the pseudo-bimetallists in this country are now trying for.

(Rep.) The Minneapolis Journal. (Minn.)

The outlook is not very promising for the monetary commission just appointed by the president.

(Dem.) The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

If McKinley intended to make the whole thing a roaring farce, it would seem that he has gone the right way about to achieve that end. We, not because his keeper, do not much care how ludicrous he

may make his administration; but we do not like the idea of these three amateurs in finance hippodroming over Europe as representatives of the American people on the question of international bimetalism.

(*Rep.*) *The Kennebec Journal.* (*Augusta, Me.*)

The selections are eminently wise ones, including the radical silverite Mr. Stephenson, who wants this country to adopt the white metal standard anyway, Mr. Wolcott, who is a silverite too, but prefers the international way of securing bimetalism, and Gen-

eral Paine, who believes only in international bimetalism.

(*Ind.*) *Public Ledger.* (*Philadelphia, Pa.*)

Though the commission will of itself accomplish nothing, it may breed a great deal of mischief.

(*Rep.*) *Ohio State Journal.* (*Columbus.*)

The president is taking the only feasible and sensible course.

(*Ind.*) *The Chicago Record.* (*Ill.*)

Considering its purpose, Mr. McKinley's appointments may be considered fairly satisfactory.

CONGRESSMAN W. S. HOLMAN OF INDIANA.



CONGRESSMAN W. S. HOLMAN.

A REMARKABLY long career in the House of Representatives was brought to a close on April 22 by the death of William Steele Holman, which occurred at his home in Washington, D. C. Mr. Holman was born on September 6, 1822, at Weraeston, Dearborn County, Ind. He received a common school education and after a two years' course at Franklin College, Ind., he started out in life as a district school teacher. In June, 1841, he married. Two years later he was admitted to the bar and very soon thereafter entered upon public service as judge of the court of probate. He was prosecuting attorney from 1847-49 and in 1850 was a member of the constitutional convention. The next year he entered the Indiana State Legislature and from 1852-56 was judge of the court of common pleas. In 1859 he was sent to the House of Representatives on the Democratic ticket, entering the Thirty-sixth Congress. Since that time he has been returned as a Democrat to Congress at every election except those of 1854, 1876, 1878, and 1894, being in his sixteenth congressional term at the time of his death. During the Civil

War he championed the Union cause and was a firm friend of Lincoln and Stanton. Mr. Holman's stiff resistance to schemes of the lobbyists and his aggressive insistence on careful economy in public expenditures won for him the nicknames the "Great Objector" and the "Watch-dog of the Treasury." As a speaker he was considered effective but not eloquent. Four children survive him, his wife having died a year ago.

Philadelphia Inquirer. (*Pa.*)

Judge Holman was one of the few living statesmen of the antebellum period still in public life. He was a statesman of the old school, narrow in view, but tenacious of opinion. His fight against public expenditures gave him the title of "Watch-dog of the Treasury," but it was not at all times creditable to him. He was not without his uses, however, and his death will be regretted. He entered Congress nearly forty years ago and has held his seat most of the time ever since. His familiar "I object" has not been heard much of late years, since the new rules prevent one member holding up the entire House, but he has held fast to his old theories.

The Argus. (*Albany, N. Y.*)

Among the countless anecdotes of Holman is not one reflecting on his honesty. His district,

though nominally Republican, was always a Holman district; and, though he had no voice and was the reverse of an orator, the fact that he had something to say produced instant quiet and attention whenever he addressed the House.

Indianapolis Journal. (*Ind.*)

In some respects Mr. Holman's congressional career was unique. He was elected to Congress more times than any other person in American history, and nominated four times oftener than he was elected. He served more years than any other person, though not more years without a break. As the "Great Objector" he became a terror in Congress, and while his services in this regard brought him a good deal of personal abuse they were often valuable. Though he rode his hobby to an offensive degree, he always commanded respect by his strict integrity.

THE JAPANESE IN HAWAII.

THE great influx of Japanese into the Hawaiian Islands during the last several years and especially during the last few months is causing anxiety to the Hawaiian government and to Americans who favor the annexation of the islands to the United States. According to the recent reports of Consul-General Ellis Mills, the Japanese rank second in numerical strength among the nations represented in the Hawaiian Islands. This threatened monopolization of power by the Japanese has been urged during the McKinley administration as a plea for the annexation of the islands by the United States. However, no occasion for special alarm occurred till early in April. Then the Hawaiian government had serious difficulty with its Japanese subjects over its deportation of four hundred and forty-eight Japanese coolies who were trying to land on Hawaii in violation of the immigration laws. The United States flagship *Philadelphia* of the Pacific Squadron was sent to Honolulu on April 3, to replace, it was said, the old ship *Marion*. Neither ship has returned home. On April 11 it was reported that the Japanese government had forbidden further emigration to Hawaii. Two days later the arrival of a Japanese man-of-war at the island was announced, and according to the same despatch Japanese officials assert that Japan has no designs on the islands more than to preserve order among her subjects there until the crisis is past.

(Rep.) *Boston Journal*. (Mass.)

The despatch of the *Philadelphia* to Honolulu is a wise precaution. Her arrival will encourage the Hawaiian government to stand its ground and will be a notification to the Japanese that in certain contingencies the little republic of the Pacific will not stand alone.

(Ind.) *The Evening Star*. (Washington, D. C.)

The Japanese on the islands at present are mainly laborers, imported for that purpose and fulfilling only that function. They are merely puppets in the hands of their ambitious home government. They have not made for civilization in the islands, and are not likely to make for it. So it is that the case of Hawaii is strong in American eyes in every way.

(Dem.) *The Sun*. (New York, N. Y.)

The recent incident may become a demonstration to us that we cannot have rights over Hawaii without also assuming responsibilities.

(Rep.) *Ohio State Journal*. (Columbus.)

There is a considerable feeling in this country against any expansion of territory and it will make itself felt when Congress formally takes up the sub-

ject. Annexation involves many dangers from which conservative citizens shrink.

(Ind.) *The Chicago Record*. (Ill.)

While this country will not permit the islands to pass under the dominion of Japan or Great Britain, or any other power, there is no reason for special haste in reopening the question at present.

The Star. (Honolulu, Hawaii.)

All this would be changed in an instant if only we had annexation. The treaty would disappear and the Japanese would occupy no status at all. Nothing but annexation can save the islands.

The Hawaiian Gazette. (Honolulu.)

The remedy is a vigorous one, and requires a revolution in the industrial life of the country. The only remedy is to replace the Asiatic with the white laborer. This cannot be done in a day, but it can be done, and must be done, if Hawaii is to realize what has been regarded for the last fifty years as its "manifest destiny." The people must place the principles of Anglo-Saxon civilization above the value of a dollar. The enunciation of principle without consistent action amounts to nothing.

THE WHITE PINE FORESTRY REPORT.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

THE report which Secretary Wilson has sent to Congress, in response to Senator Chandler's resolution, is important. It comes from the chief of the Forestry Division, and, while it attempts no sensation, it shows that the climax in the annual cutting of white pine and other coniferous timber, like spruce and hemlock, in this country is near at hand. The timber will still be obtainable in great quantities, especially with Canada's aid, for scores of years; but it can be supplied only for a few years more in the prodigious annual amounts hitherto furnished. Since 1873, there have been cut in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota alone, 154,000,000,000 feet,

board measure, besides 83,000,000,000 shingles, and in the last three fourths of that period about 200,000,000,000 feet, taking the whole country together. New York and Pennsylvania have, next to the three states just mentioned, large quantities of standing coniferous timber, and the amount left in the Northern States is estimated at about 100,000,000,000 feet, or half as much as has been cut since about 1878 in the whole country. Canada is another resource, with about 37,000,000,000 feet of white pine. The Senate's inquiry was wise, and while the answer has necessarily been imperfect and only approximate, it should yet serve to confirm the determination to protect the forests.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

April 6. President McKinley nominates Theodore Roosevelt for assistant secretary of the navy. —Carter Harrison, Democrat, is elected mayor of Chicago.

April 7. The German government files a protest at the State Department against the Dingley Bill's differential duties on sugar.

April 8. The Italian government files a protest at the State Department against high duties on oranges and lemons.—John W. Foster and ex-Assistant Secretary Hamlin are appointed by President McKinley as committee on the protection of the Bering Sea seal herds.

April 14. Col. John Hay, ambassador to Great Britain, embarks at New York for England.

April 17. A national convention at Nashville, Tenn., is called for July 4 by the Middle-of-the-road Populists.

April 20. The International Kindergarten Union convenes in St. Louis, Mo.

April 21. The Y. M. C. A. begins its international convention at Mobile, Ala.

April 23. President McKinley nominates Judge William R. Day, of Ohio, first assistant secretary of state, and ex-Congressman Bellamy Storer, of Ohio, minister to Belgium.—The Interior Department announces that the Dawes Commission has successfully negotiated with the Choctaw and Chickasaw Indian tribes for allotment of land in severalty.

April 24. Mayor-General Miles gains a leave of absence to inspect the forces engaged in the eastern war.—The Senate committee on the civil service investigation in Washington, D. C., begins its work.

April 25. Negroes in Indian Territory are driven from their homes by threatening regulators.

April 29. Postmaster-General Gary appoints the United States delegates to the International Postal Union Congress.

May 1. President McKinley receives our new Chinese minister, Wo Ting Fang.

May 5. The International Postal Union Congress convenes in Washington, D. C.

FOREIGN.

April 8. Dr. Lueger, the anti-Semitic leader, is reelected burgomaster of Vienna.

April 9. Great Britain is reported to have purchased Delagoa Bay, on the southeast coast of Africa, from the Portuguese.

April 14. The financial delegate of the Russian government in Paris says Russia has accepted

M. De Witte's financial policy, which is committed to the gold standard.

April 15. Arbitration has been agreed upon by France and Brazil to settle the Guiana boundary dispute.

April 17. Captain-General Weyler announces his pacification of Puerto Principe and Matanzas Provinces in Cuba.

April 20. The Parnellites convene in Dublin, Ireland, and pass a resolution to form an independent Irish league not committed to agrarian interests.—The Mexican House of Deputies passes an extradition law which will require new extradition treaties.

April 21. Col. John Hay, the new United States ambassador to the court of St. James, England, arrives at Southampton, England, and is welcomed there by the mayor.—Emperor William of Germany is welcomed in Vienna by the emperor of Austria.

April 22. King Humbert of Italy and President Borda of Uruguay narrowly escape assassination.—The Mexican Senate ratifies the Honduras boundary treaty with England.

April 25. Germany seeks to enlist France and Russia with herself in opposition to Great Britain's African policy.—Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria goes on a visit to the czar at St. Petersburg, Russia.

April 26. Brazil and Chili are reported to have formed an alliance to promote peace in South America.

April 28. Queen Victoria embarks from the South of France for England.

April 29.—The British Budget is announced in the House of Commons, and its large appropriations for war in South Africa rouse Sir William Harcourt, the Liberal leader, to accuse Joseph Chamberlain, secretary of the colonies, with a "war plot which missed fire"; an angry dispute follows.

April 30. A riot of coolie laborers takes place in Shanghai, China.—Joseph Chamberlain testifies under oath that the British government had no knowledge of the Jameson raid until it occurred.

May 1. In Barcelona, Spain, the death sentence is passed on twenty-six anarchists for their part in the bomb trouble of last June.

NECROLOGY.

April 15. Judge James J. Storrow, counsel in Venezuelan treaty negotiation.

May 2. Sir William C. F. Robinson, ex-Governor of West Australia.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR JUNE.

First Week (ending June 10).

- "A Study of the Sky." Pages 103 and 104. "Libra" and "Delphinus."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Paris the Magnificent."

Sunday Reading for June 6.

Second Week (ending June 17).

- "A Study of the Sky." Pages 104 and 106. "Aquila" and "Serpens and Ophiuchus."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Mirabeau in the Revolution."

"The Revolution and the First Empire."

Sunday Reading for June 13.

Third Week (ending June 24).

- "A Study of the Sky." Page 107. "Sagittarius."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Thiers."

Sunday Reading for June 20.

Fourth Week (ending June 30).

- "A Study of the Sky." Pages 108 and 109. "Cepheus" and "Capricornus."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"France in the American Revolution."

Sunday Reading for June 27.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR JUNE.

FIRST WEEK.

1. A Paper—The kings of France and their influence on the development of the nation.
2. Essay—The revolutions of France.
3. A Talk—The presidents of the French Republic.
4. Essay—A presidential election in France.
5. A Talk—The position France occupies in education and literature.
6. A Review—French *literati*.
7. Table Talk—Current events for the week.

SECOND WEEK.

1. A Study in Political History—Modern Greece and her ruler. See "King George I. of Greece," in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for April.
2. A Talk—The Cretan crisis. See *Current History and Opinion* in the April, May, and June numbers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
3. Essay—The influence of the conquests of Alexander the Great.
4. Table Talk—Archeological discoveries and what they prove.
5. Book Review—"A Survey of Greek Civilization," by J. P. Mahaffy.

6. General Conversation—The memorials to our great men.*

THIRD WEEK.

1. Literary Criticism—"The Son of a Tory," by Clinton Scollard, concluded in the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
2. A Talk—Famous Greek temples and their ornamentation.
3. A Review—The orders of Greek architecture.
4. A Paper—Greek life as portrayed in Greek art.
5. A Talk—Egyptian art.
6. General Discussion—The advantages and disadvantages of a large city.*

FOURTH WEEK.

1. A Paper—The planets.
2. Essay—What we know about the sun and the moon.
3. General Conversation—The circumpolar constellations.
4. A Review—Definitions in astronomy.
5. A Talk—The progress of astronomical investigation.
6. Table Talk—Hawaii and the Japanese.*

*See *Current History and Opinion*.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

FRENCH LITERATURE AND ART.—IX.

1. What is the chief criticism on the writings of Thiers?
2. Who is known by the pseudonym "George Sand"?
3. Name two novels written by George Sand.
4. In what way did the formation of the

French Republic aid the literature of France?

5. Name four living French novelists.
6. Give an important work of each.
7. Name one work of each of the following poets: Sully-Prudhomme, José Maria de Heredia, and François Coppée.
8. What famous painter of this century made

Bible scenes the subject of many of his paintings?

9. Give the names of four modern painters.
10. What is Jean François Millet's most popular painting?

FRENCH HISTORY.—IX.

1. What incident is known as the French Fury?
2. What minister of finance was arrested while giving a fête in honor of the king who ordered his arrest?
3. In what famous siege of modern times did France take an active part?
4. What memorable act was performed by the French at this siege?
5. What French sovereign was called the King of the Barricades?
6. What French king died in England during this century?
7. By what did the ministry of M. Jules Ferry signalize its advent to power?
8. How long did the Ferry ministry remain in power?
9. What was the greatest achievement of the Ferry ministry in domestic affairs?
10. What two societies were powerful instruments in bringing about the Reign of Terror?

ASTRONOMY.—IX.

1. By what names has Uranus been designated?
2. What is the symbol by which Uranus is usually represented?
3. How many times had Uranus been observed previous to Herschel's discovery and what was it supposed to be?
4. By whom and when was the first photograph of the moon made?
5. What is the largest number of eclipses of both the sun and moon that can occur during a single year?
6. What is the smallest number of eclipses possible in a single year?
7. By whom was the aberration of light discovered?
8. What astronomer was called the Southern Tycho, and why?
9. Who discovered the nutation of the earth's axis?
10. By whom was the chronometer invented?

CURRENT EVENTS.—IX.

1. When and in what form did ex-Queen Liliuokalani renounce all pretensions to the throne of Hawaii?
2. Who was the husband of the ex-Queen Liliuokalani?
3. When was the first treaty made between the United States and the Sandwich Islands?
4. By whom and when was the following state-

ment made in regard to the Hawaiian Island: "If any foreign connection is to be formed the geographical position of these islands indicates that it should be with us."?

5. What steps were taken a few years ago toward the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands to the United States?
6. What provision is made in the Nelson Bill for attorney and assignee fees?
7. What tribunal is created by the Anglo-Venezuelan treaty?
8. Who constitute this tribunal?
9. Who is to be president of the tribunal?
10. Where is the meeting of the tribunal to be held?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR MAY.

FRENCH LITERATURE AND ART.—VIII.

1. His opposition to Louis Napoleon; he tried to assert the rights of the Assembly and to preserve the constitution. 2. After the fall of the Empire in 1870. 3. He was elected a life member of the Senate. 4. "Hernani." 5. "Quatre-vingt-treize" and "Les Misérables." 6. Émile Zola, his income being \$60,000 a year. 7. Charles V. 8. He regarded them with great respect, and had a real friendship for some of them. 9. *The Gazette*, established in 1631. 10. The church of the Madeleine.

FRENCH HISTORY.—VIII.

1. Liberty, equality, and fraternity. 2. "All the symptoms which I have ever met with in history, previous to great changes and revolutions in government, now exist and daily increase in France." 3. The commons, composed of the *bourgeoisie*, or middle class, and the people, or the peasants and poorer inhabitants of the towns. 4. The *bourgeoisie*, or middle class. 5. "I have accomplished more in my day than either Luther or Calvin." 6. Of 1,200. 7. The custom of voting by orders would prevent the commons from carrying any measure if the other two orders combined against them, so the king and his counselors yielded to popular demand. 8. Jean Sylvain Bailly. 9. To the clergy he said, "There is still something to be desired; some brothers are wanting to this august assembly. What we want will be given to us: all our brothers will come here"; to the nobility, "This day will be illustrious in our annals: it renders the family complete." 10. "How much is this the greatest event that ever happened in the world, and how much the best!"

ASTRONOMY.—VIII.

1. The positions they occupy in their orbits relative to the sun and the earth. 2. Conjunction,

opposition, and quadrature. 3. When its position is 90° from the place it occupies in conjunction and opposition. 4. At quadrature. 5. At or near the time of quadrature. 6. At the time of opposition. 7. It remains parallel to itself. 8. During one half of the planets' revolution one surface of the ring is illuminated, and during the remaining half the other surface receives the light. 9. The northern. 10. The superior planets.

CURRENT EVENTS.—VIII.

1. Through two years. 2. December, 1895. 3. At New York, March 4, 1789. 4. The Seventeenth

Congress. 5. The *yen*; the gold and silver *yen* nearly equaled the United States gold and silver dollar. 6. The five, ten, twenty, and fifty-*sen* pieces. A *sen* is the one-hundredth part of a *yen*. 7. A commission of fifteen members appointed by the governor of New York. 8. In a municipal assembly composed of two houses—an upper house of thirty-seven members and a board of one hundred and four aldermen. 9. The mayor. 10. A proclamation was issued February 22 by President Cleveland setting aside thirteen forest reservations in South Dakota, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, Montana, Washington, and Utah.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1900.

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

"Veni, Vidi, Vici."

OFFICERS.

President—Judge C. H. Noyes, Warren, Pa.
Vice Presidents—Rev. W. P. Varner, Bolivar, Pa.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, Ohio; Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Wells College, Aurora, N. Y.; A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; Rev. James Ellsworth Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, South Wales, N. Y.
Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Treasurer and Trustee—Shirley P. Austin, Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM.—IVY.

THE following important announcement should be read with care by every member of the Class of '97. A special report blank and final address will be mailed to all members of the class during the month of May. These two circulars give all necessary information with regard to graduation and any member of the Class of '97 who fails to receive them by the first of June should at once communicate this fact to the Chautauqua Office, at Buffalo, N. Y. The report blank, in addition to other details, gives the list of Recognition Days which are held at the various Assemblies. Those who desire to receive their diplomas at one of the June Assemblies should send in the report blank as soon as possible.

THERE is promise that this will be an unusually prosperous Assembly season. Increased interest in the C. L. S. C. is taken each year and many of the programs for the coming sessions have been planned with the purpose in view of emphasizing this important feature of educational work. Attractive Round Tables and enthusiastic Rally and Recognition Days will be found at nearly all of the ninety or more Assemblies that meet this summer.

It is to be hoped that every member of the Class of '97 will be able to graduate at some Assembly. It is the most fitting way in which to complete the four years' course. The meeting with fellow class-

mates who have heretofore been strangers, the march together to the golden gate, the passing under the arches while the flower girls strew the path with blossoms, the address to the graduates, the distribution of the diplomas, the inspiring music, the hearty good fellowship—all tend to make the day glorious in the memory of all Chautauquans.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.
Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs. W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner; S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N. Y.
Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. H. S. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER.—VIOLET.

To the Class of '98 will fall the responsibility and privilege of decorating the Hall of Philosophy and Auditorium for Recognition Day. They should report at C. L. S. C. headquarters as early as convenient upon reaching the Assembly grounds. Add to the interest and enjoyment of the day by your presence and assistance. A reception to the members of the graduating class after the exercises on Recognition Day is often a very pleasant occasion enjoyed by many Assemblies. Foster the spirit of good fellowship; never forget that Chautauqua has a social side and at the Assembly it may be made especially helpful to the cause.

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.
Vice Presidents—The Rev. Cyrus B. Hatch, McKeesport, Pa.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlisle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton,

Uxbridge, Eng.; Miss Alice P. Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tien-Tsin, China; Mrs. Katharine L. Stevenson, Chicago, Ill.

Secretary—Miss Isabella F. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

Treasurer and Building Trustee—John C. Whiteford, Mexico, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEMS—THE FLAG AND THE FERN LEAF.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

THIS class has already passed its second milestone and half of its four years has been completed. Much new courage can be gained by meeting fellow workers at some Assembly, for help and inspiration always come from contact with others who are interested in the same line of work.

The new course for 1897-98 is already announced and we are assured that it promises to be the most interesting and attractive of any yet issued under Chautauqua auspices.

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."

OFFICERS.

President—Rev. Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.; Rev. John A. McKamy, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. Duncan Cameron, Canisteo, N. Y.

Secretary—Miss Mabel Campbell, Cohoes, N. Y.

Trustee—Rev. Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

THE Class of 1900 is yet receiving recruits. Among the latest is one enrolled from India. He is deputy collector and magistrate of Cumbum, a Mohammedan gentleman in her Majesty's provincial civil service. Truly Chautauqua reaches to the ends of the earth and her children are numbered in all lands.

THE Class of the Twentieth Century will soon begin to enroll. The members of 1900 can do much to enlarge the circles by securing new readers. New members to every circle and a circle in every community would be a good motto for 1900 to begin the work with, next October.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1896-97.

CHARLEMAGNE DAY—October 30.

"SAINT LOUIS" DAY—November 30.

JOAN OF ARC DAY—December 4.

RICHELIEU DAY—January 4.

HOMER DAY—February 12.

SOCRATES DAY—March 5.

EPAMINONDAS DAY—April 24.

PHIDIAS DAY—May 24.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The characteristic name of the "Aspirants" is that by which the little band at Somerville is known, and the progressive spirit of the members is a positive assurance of success in the end. Not long since, the circle was delightfully entertained by a lady who had made several trips across the ocean and in her travels had collected a great number of photographs of Greek ruins, statuary, etc. These pictures she used in illustrating an appreciative talk on Greek art, in which her intimate knowledge of the subject was clearly shown and which furnished a valuable treat for the enthusiastic Chautauquans.—The year is almost at its close, but Holland Circle, Springfield, sends still one more name for enrollment.—Hurlbut Circle, East Boston, sends the following poem written by their vice-

president and used in connection with the study in French history.

THE FRENCH KINGS.

Hugh Capet was number one,

Robert was his eldest son.

Henry First essayed to gain

Normandy to his domain.

Philip First lent zealous aid

When Peter preached the first crusade.

Louis Sixth, surnamed *le Gros*,

Proved a formidable foe.

Louis Seventh divorced his wife

After fierce domestic strife.

Philip Second Flanders pounded,

And the monarchy he founded.

Louis Eighth took La Rochelle,

St. Louis governed long and well.

Philip Third, of feeble brain,

Left his ministers to reign.

Philip Fourth, the Fair, created
 The Estates, by French kings hated.
 Then succeeded brothers three,
 First the feeble tenth Louis,
 Second, Philip Fifth, who made
 The Estates his constant aid.
 Then Charles the Fourth, the records say,
 Latest son of Hugh Capet.
 Philip Sixth on Crecy's hill
 Matched his strength with England's skill.
 John, the English did quite brown,
 And carried off to London town.
 Charles the Fifth made England fear,
 Charles the Sixth was mad as Lear.
 Charles the Seventh owed his crown
 To the maid of Orleans town.
 Louis Eleventh could not agree
 With Charles the Bold of Burgundy.
 Charles the Eighth invaded Italy
 After continental Sicily.
 Louis Twelfth subdued Milan,
 And Venetia overran.
 Francis squandered wealth untold
 On the "Field of Cloth of Gold."
 Henry Second, soldier fine,
 Took a step toward the Rhine.
 Francis died at seventeen,
 Mary Stuart was his queen.
 Charles the Ninth did sadly rue
 The day of St. Bartholomew.
 Henry Third without a pause
 Carried on the civil wars.
 Henry Fourth then blessed the nation
 With religious toleration.
 Louis Thirteenth's minister
 Was the brilliant Richelieu.
 Louis Fourteenth made his mark,
 And was called the *Grand Monarque*.
 Louis Fifteenth's selfishness
 Plunged the nation in distress.
 As the Revolution sped,
 Louis Sixteenth lost his head.

NEW YORK.—Chautauqua Union of New York City can hold its own with other organizations in furnishing good things for its members and the public. Not the least enjoyable entertainment of the season was "A Nicht wi' Ian MacIaren," given on March 18 at the Grace M. E. Church. The readings by Mr. James MacArthur, editor of *The Bookman*, were accompanied by the Balmoral Quartet, with their excellent rendering of Scottish part-songs. The following is the program:

Part-song Scots Wha' Ha'e wi' Wallace Bled.
 Quartet.
 Part-song There Grows a Bonnie Brier Bush.
 Quartet.
 Reading The Story of Flora Campbell.
 Mr. MacArthur.
 Part-song Annie Laurie.
 Quartet.
 Reading Our Sermon Taster.
 Mr. MacArthur.
 Part-song Kate Dalrymple.
 Quartet.
 Reading Jamie { 1. A Nippy Tong.
 Mr. MacArthur. { 2. A Cynic's End.
 Part-song The Land o' the Leal.
 Quartet.
 Auld Lang Syne.

The next entertainment will be Alexander Black's

picture-play, "A Capital Courtship."—At a recent meeting of the circle at Oneida, held at the Methodist parsonage, twenty-three members were present. Two leaders were appointed, who divided the circle into two divisions, the leaders alone to know on which side the members were chosen. Since that time credits for attendance and good work have been given at each meeting and at the close of the year the side having the most credits will be banqueted by the losing side. The interest is constantly increasing and very excellent work is done. —One evening of every week finds an aggressive corps of eighteen Chautauquan readers assembled in the parlors of the M. E. Church at Little Falls; they are called the League C. L. S. C.—Membership fees are received from Park Circle, Utica.

NEW JERSEY.—The following is received from the Beach Circle, Jersey City: "A reception to all Chautauquans in Hudson County will be tendered by the Beach Circle in the West Side Avenue M. E. Church on Thursday, May 13. The members of the Beach Circle will visit the Museum of Art, Central Park, N. Y., on Saturday, May 22. Greek art, sculpture, etc., will be examined and discussed, the text-book of this year's course being used to illustrate. A 'Chautauqua Day' will be held at Prohibition Park, Staten Island, under the combined auspices of the Brooklyn, New York, and Jersey City Chautauqua Circles on Saturday, June 5. Afternoon and evening services will be held. All Chautauquans in the vicinity of these cities are invited to take an outing on that date."

VIRGINIA.—"The Kecoughtan Chautauqua Circle, of historic old Hampton, Virginia, is in a flourishing condition. We organized at the beginning of the year with an active membership of fifteen, and the weekly meetings are attended with satisfactory results. It is the aim of the circle to hold open meetings every third month, the special feature of which is to have the general subjects in touch with the course of reading. We have been in existence three years, and choose a leader and a secretary for each year. We are all greatly indebted to the Chautauqua movement for the pleasant diversion from every-day occupations that it furnishes. The circle is very enthusiastic over 'A Study of the Sky.' 'French Traits' compelled us to concentrate our minds, and we now feel that we know something of the French nation."

TEXAS.—The work of the Weatherford Circle is satisfactory to all the members. One of them says: "I think no development of this century can surpass the Chautauqua movement for good to the masses."

INDIAN TERRITORY.—Newspaper clippings from Ardmore show the Chickasaw Circle of that place up to its usual high standard of work. The attendance is about fifteen; all the parts assigned for the

programs are prepared with the greatest care, and the meetings are made very instructive. The subjects treated are varied and interesting, as shown by the program of a recent meeting, when several papers on astronomy as it was considered by the ancients were read, and other topics, as "Crete," "Corinth and the Corinthians," "Carthage," and "Schliemann the Archeologist," were discussed.

OHIO.—The following from the circle at Toledo speaks for itself: "We are pleased to say that our class of twenty are doing very well and not one of them has thought of giving up until the end."—Two new members swell the ranks of a class at Dayton.—Readers at Cincinnati are making rapid progress.

ILLINOIS.—Chautauqua readers at Springfield are giving strict attention to the work in hand.

MINNESOTA.—The average attendance of the circle at Duluth is fifteen and with their efficient corps of officers the members are receiving much benefit from the reading.

IOWA.—Five names are registered in the Class of '98 from Ladora.

MISSOURI.—A postgraduate society at Carthage, calling themselves the Vincent Circle, have held instructive meetings this year. A Chautauqua Assembly will be held at Carthage during the summer, when a great deal of Chautauqua spirit will doubtless be aroused.—A new and promising circle has been organized in South St. Louis under the name Eclectic. Their flower is the mistletoe and their motto "Prove all things; hold fast that which is good."—Chautauqua spirit is found in abundance among the circle readers at St. Joseph.

KANSAS.—"The College Hill C. L. S. C. of Winfield is now in its sixth year. It is an afternoon circle composed of eight ladies, of whom five are college or high school graduates. One of our members has read during the entire six years, although she graduated two years ago. Our president spent last year in Europe and is now sharing with the circle what she learned while there. We follow each

program as given in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. We have had a delightful time in studying astronomy. We are all busy women but feel paid tenfold for the time spent in the C. L. S. C. work."

CALIFORNIA.—Solano Chautauquans at Vallejo are to be congratulated on the enthusiasm created by their efforts to give a course of six lectures on "Greek Social Life." A suitable introduction to such a course was a delightful lecture given not long since in the Presbyterian Church by the Rev. Dr. McClish, president of the University of the Pacific and Coast, and superintendent of Chautauqua work. His subject was "The Seer and his Vision." He was attentively listened to by more than five hundred people. In concluding, the Rev. McClish complimented the C. L. S. C. on the large audience and the excellent work of the circle. The first lecture of the course will be given May 30, and the young people's societies of the different churches will assist the circle.—"The Central Chautauqua Circle of San Francisco held an open meeting and informal reception of Chautauquans on March 16. Three other circles were represented from San Francisco and two from Oakland. The program, on the regular study of the evening, consisted of papers, talks, and discussions, varied by a piano duet and a speech, 'To our Guests,' by the president. After the exercises the company adjourned to the festal board, where good things had been prepared to regale the inner man. Here a few short speeches were made and arrangements perfected for union meetings of Chautauqua members of San Francisco and Oakland. The meeting closed by singing 'Blest Be the Tie That Binds,' the entire company forming a circle and joining hands. They report the occasion as a delightful one. It has no doubt added to the enthusiasm of Chautauquans about the 'golden gate.' There were eighty-five Chautauquans present."—Epworth Circle, Los Angeles, is reading for the fourth year and will graduate ten members this year. The work done by this circle is and always has been beyond reproach.

THE WINTER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1897.

THE GEORGIA CHAUTAUQUA.

FOR seven years this Assembly has been writing a splendid history in the heart of Georgia. Its home is at Albany, a thriving, beautiful little town, thoroughly in love with the work of the Chautauqua. Her most influential citizens are represented in the directory.

The Assembly this year convened March 20 and continued one week. The outlook was anything but favorable. It rained without cessation from noon of the first day until noon of the third day;

every bridge in the county in which Albany is located was washed away and all railroad communication cut off. The great tent had to be abandoned and the meetings were held in the opera-house. Every meeting which had been announced, save one, was held despite the pouring rain. On the third day the sun made his appearance, and the remaining days of the Assembly were bright and beautiful. Determined that the Assembly should be a success, the people put forth heroic efforts and met all expenses, with something to spare, and the Assembly

of 1897 was the banner Assembly of all the years. Dr. A. W. Duncan, the superintendent of instruction, gave direction with consummate skill to all the exercises of the Assembly, and at the meeting of the stockholders was, of course, reelected superintendent of instruction for 1898. The stockholders also voted to erect a beautiful and substantial tabernacle on a commanding lot in the city of Albany.

On the platform the following prominent persons took part in the program: the Rev. Charles N. Sims, D.D., Hon. Wallace Bruce, John R. Stratton, Gov. G. Y. Atkinson of Georgia, the Rev. Sam. P. Jones; Dr. W. L. Davidson also lectured three times, had charge of the Sunday-school normal department, and gave impetus as well to the C. L. S. C. work. Rogers' Band furnished delightful music. Dr. H. R. Palmer had charge of the chorus, which was this year a great feature. Madame Cecelia Eppinghausen Bailey delighted all with her splendid voice. Dr. R. H. Palmer and Hon. Wallace Bruce discussed the Bacon-Shakespeare question. A military parade competitive drill was one of the attractive features.

The Assembly is doing a splendid work under the leadership of Dr. Duncan and his associates.

THE FLORIDA CHAUTAUQUA.

The thirteenth annual session of this well-known Chautauqua was held at DeFuniak Springs, Florida, February 18 to March 17. It has been quite customary in every annual report of this Assembly for the past five years to say that it was the best year of all. The same thing must be said again this year, and that too with great emphasis. The attendance was the largest in the history of the Assembly, and the Saturday excursion feature was this year simply phenomenal. Frequently four thousand strangers were on the grounds.

The program, prepared by Dr. W. L. Davidson, gave universal satisfaction and was thought to be as well balanced as any program which has ever been made for this Assembly.

The music was under the direction of Dr. H. R.

Palmer. Rogers' Band, the Ottumwa Male Quartet, the Shubert Quartet, and the Indiana State University Glee Club were among the leading musical attractions. Madame Cecelia Eppinghausen Bailey, Miss Marie Lewis Chambers, and Miss Missouri Cawthon were popular soloists. Edwin L. Barker and Luther T. Blake gave enjoyable impersonations. The lecture platform was rich in such talent as Dr. S. J. Bieler, Rev. M. W. Chase, Col. George B. Bain, Dr. M. Rhoades, Prof. Lawton B. Evans, Hon. Wallace Bruce, who is also the active and influential president of the Florida Chautauqua, Dr. C. B. Mitchell, W. C. Alford, Judge J. J. Banks, Rev. F. D. Parkhurst, Dr. H. W. Thomas, Rev. C. C. Albertson, and many others.

Bible study was made impressive under the leadership of Elijah P. Brown, of *The Ram's Horn*, and Rev. J. E. Turner. Mrs. Mary L. Stewart was exceedingly popular with the work in physical training and kindergarten. Miss Jennie White had charge of the art department. Miss Mary E. Rowe of Indianapolis superintended the Sunday-school normal department.

Recognition Day, under the inspiration of Miss C. A. Teal of Brooklyn, N. Y., was a great occasion. Nine graduates passed the arches. There were fully five hundred in the procession. It was the most impressive day of the kind ever had at DeFuniak.

The one sad disappointment of the Assembly was the failure, because of sickness, of Dr. Talmage to keep his appointment.

The whole of western Florida is becoming each year more and more interested in this "winter Assembly in the land of summer," and it is doing a magnificent work in lifting up the tastes of the people and giving them for a month each winter rare literary and educational advantages. There are but few Assemblies in America accomplishing such a mission for good as is the Florida Chautauqua. It is becoming one of the best-known Assemblies on the continent.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Lord Nelson.

Since in the life and career of Lord Nelson* the achievements of British naval power reached their culmination, Captain A. T. Mahan of the United States Navy has appropriately made this hero the subject of a biographical study. It is the third book in the important series of works on "The Influence of Sea

Power," and in its force and general perspicuity of style it is an admirable example of excellent literary execution. Originality in the method of investigation employed by the author is evident throughout the book. Unlike other writers on biographical subjects, Captain Mahan, as the prefatory remarks disclose to us, makes "Nelson describe himself—tell the story of his own inner life as well as of his external actions." To accomplish this the author has used such extracts from Lord Nelson's correspondence as are germane to the purpose, and to

* The Life of Nelson, the Embodiment of the Sea Power of Great Britain. By Captain A. T. Mahan, D. C. L., LL. D. In two vols. 479 + 442 pp. \$8.00. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

these he has added his own personal estimate of the man obtained from a study of the conditions which surrounded him. Thus there is furnished us a very candid and impartial estimate of Lord Nelson, his influence in naval history, and a picture of the stirring and decisive events of the age in which this remarkable man lived. The illustrations of the book include the portraits in photogravure of nineteen prominent people of this period, together with a large number of maps and plans of battles. The copious index which is included in the second volume is a convenience which readers will much appreciate.

A volume designed to open the way for the study of Chaucer contains, beside the usual biographical sketch, explanations which will aid students to pronounce Chaucerian English, a synopsis of grammatical construction, and studies in the prosody of Chaucer's poetry. Expository notes and the glossary furnish other needed explanations to the text, which is composed of selections from the "Canterbury Tales,"* between which the editor, Hiram Corson, LL. D., has inserted an abstract of the omitted portions, thus preserving the continuity of the recital.

The "Tales from Shakespeare,"† by Charles and Mary Lamb, are written particularly for youthful readers not yet old enough to comprehend the dramas as Shakespeare has left them to us. This edition is attractively bound in covers of red, stamped with gilt.

The introduction with which the editor of "Selections from the Works of Sir Richard Steele"‡ opens his work is written in a scholarly style and is highly interesting and instructive. The facts he presents are carefully classified, so that it is not difficult to find just what one wishes to know in regard to the life and works of Steele. The selections which comprise the main portion of the book are excerpts from his letters and his political, poetic, and dramatic works, and the annotations are ample for the students' needs.

The contents of "Spenser's Britomart"§ have been arranged in a form suited to the needs of students. From Books III., IV., and V. of the "Faerie Queene" Mary E. Litchfield has taken everything unnecessary to a connected recital of the story of Britomart as contained in Spenser's mas-

terpiece. The modernized spelling, the explanatory foot-notes, and an analytic and biographical introduction are especial characteristics of the work, which is printed in clear type on excellent paper.

One who thinks that there is much in the poetry of the Brownings* which young readers can enjoy has selected for study several of the less difficult poems of both Robert and Elizabeth Barrett Browning. Each selection is preceded by an explanatory paragraph and annotations are included in the foot-notes, an arrangement which will materially aid the student of Browning.

A very serviceable and fine series of little books called "The Temple Classics"† reproduces in convenient and attractive form some of the classic productions of English writers. The paper, the type, the binding, and the general make-up of the books are very satisfactory, and to any library they would be a welcome addition. The five volumes now ready are from the writings of Southey, Wordsworth, Malory, and Lamb, and the necessary explanations for an appreciative study of these works are supplied in the form of notes, glossary, or appendix.

The studies in dramatic literature furnished by "The Temple Dramatists"‡ series have been admirably edited by competent critics, each of the four volumes being supplied with notes, a glossary, and a preface which is descriptive, historical, and critical in character. The frontispiece and an ornamental title-page add much to the appearance of each volume, and the binding is exceedingly neat and tasty.

Many subjects of interest to the earnest Christian are clearly and carefully dealt with in a little volume called "Through Fire and Flood."§ The purpose of temptation, the ways by which men are led to faith, and the value and responsibility of the life of mediocre people are some of the questions which the author has elucidated.

From the thirty-third chapter of Numbers the Rev. William Justin Harsha, D. D., has drawn many

* The Brownings for the Young. Edited by Frederic G. Kenyon. 215 pp. 40 cts.—† The Life of Horatio, Lord Nelson. By Robert Southey. 368 pp.—The Prelude, or Growth of a Poet's Mind. By William Wordsworth. 264 pp.—Le Morte d'Arthur. By Sir Thomas Malory. Vols. I. and II. 312 + 308 pp.—The Essays of Elia. By Charles Lamb. 308 pp. 50 cts. each.—‡ Every Man in His Humour. A play written by Ben Jonson. Edited with a Preface, Notes, and Glossary by W. Macneile Dixon, Litt. D., A. M., LL. B. 160 pp. 45 cts.—Arden of Feversham. Edited with a Preface, Notes and Glossary by Rev. Ronald Bayne, M. A. 123 pp. 45 cts.—Edward the Second. A Play written by Christopher Marlowe. Edited with a Preface, Notes, and Glossary by A. W. Verity, M. A. 144 pp. 45 cts.—The Two Noble Kinsmen. Edited with Preface, Notes, and Glossary by C. H. Herford, Litt. D. 150 pp. 45 cts. New York: The Macmillan Company.

§ Through Fire and Flood. By F. B. Meyer, B. A. 162 pp. 50 cts. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

* Selections from Chaucer's Canterbury Tales (Ellesmere Text). Edited with Introduction, Notes, and Glossary by Hiram Corson, LL. D. 331 pp. 90 cts. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† Tales from Shakespeare. By Charles and Mary Lamb. 350 pp. Chicago and New York: Rand, McNally & Company.

‡ Selections from the Works of Sir Richard Steele. Edited with Notes and an Introduction by George Rice Carpenter. 260 pp. \$1.00.—§ Spenser's Britomart. Edited with Introduction and Notes by Mary E. Litchfield. 296 pp. 70 cts. Boston: Ginn & Company.

lessons, which are embodied in a volume entitled "Sabbath-day Journeys."* Each journey and stopping place of the children of Israel, as they traveled through the wilderness, the author has made symbolical of various stages in the progress of the Christian pilgrim from the bondage of sin to the final land of promise. There are fifty-two studies—one for each Sunday during the year—which if carefully and thoughtfully pursued will dispel the notion that Bible names are meaningless.

There is always much to be learned from a study of strong characters, particularly those of whom record is found in the Scriptures, and Dr. Alexander Whyte has made his studies, which he calls "Bible Characters,"† especially interesting. They are interpretative rather than biographical and in them are considered the causes and results of certain acts committed by twenty-five different people, from Adam to Achan, from which are drawn many helpful and original suggestions, presented in a forceful and convincing way.

"The Vision of Christ in the Poets"‡ is a volume containing selected poems from the works of some of the world's great singers, in which is reflected Christian faith as interpreted by these poets. These selections are from the works of Milton, Wordsworth, the Brownings, Tennyson, Whittier, Longfellow, and Lowell, and preceding each group of poems is a short biographical sketch. Notes follow the text proper and an excellent introduction on the purpose and nature of poetry opens the work.

A very complete and explicit exposition of the Nicene theology is offered in a series of lectures || by Dr. Hugh M. Scott, in which he states that "the divinity of Christ is the one great doctrine" of the theology promulgated by the Nicene ecumenical council. To prove his statements the author cites many Bible references, and many of the criticisms adverse to the doctrines of Christianity he successfully answers. He gives considerable attention to the views of Ritschl and his followers, and the opinions of other schools. These lectures will be serviceable to theological students, for whom they were first delivered.

There is a growing sentiment favoring the study of the Bible as literature, not merely for the purpose of becoming acquainted with the highest and purest literary art, but to obtain a deeper insight into its spiritual truths and revelations. This plan

of investigation is subserved by a volume bearing the title "The Bible as Literature,"* for which Dr. Lyman Abbott has written a scholarly introduction bearing upon this subject. Twenty other well-known men of literary ability have contributed articles on the various books of the Bible.

The series of Yale lectures on preaching delivered by the Rev. Henry Van Dyke in 1896 have been collected into book form under the title "The Gospel for an Age of Doubt."† The author has employed his usual happy style in presenting the plain, practical truths in regard to the personality in the Christian religion, the humanity of Christ, "his revelation of human liberty and divine sovereignty," and service as the "key-note of heaven." The appendix contains excerpts from many works by prominent authors, which, with the lectures preceding it, make an interesting book and one which every Christian can read with profit.

A convenient arrangement of passages of Scripture for devotional services, both public and private, is a collection of Bible selections‡ compiled by Sylvanus Stall, D.D. Portions of the Bible text suited especially to deep study are omitted, and the three hundred and sixty-five readings, of about twenty-five verses each, from Genesis to Revelation, are arranged consecutively. The story of the life of Christ as narrated in the four gospels is abridged to a single continuous recital, the events being given in chronological order. Diacritical marks are used to indicate the pronunciation of difficult words, thus making it possible for children to read the passages with ease.

Miscellaneous.

The highest tribute that can be paid to the memory of a friend has been penned by J. M. Barrie in praise of his mother.|| So closely were the lives of mother and son connected that this life-history necessarily contains much that is interesting in an autobiographical way. Tender and touching as is the recital, there are strains of delicate humor running through it, and every word of the memoir speaks the author's respect and love for her whose influence was a potent factor in his life and in the success of his literary work.

The Rev. James C. Fernald, the synonym editor of the "Standard Dictionary," is the author of

* Sabbath-day Journeys. By the Rev. William Justin Harsha, D.D. 275 pp. \$1.00.—† Bible Characters. Adam to Achan. By Alexander Whyte, D.D. 301 pp. \$1.25. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

‡ The Vision of Christ in the Poets. Edited by Chas. M. Stuart. With an Introduction by Prof. C. W. Pearson. 304 pp. 90 cts. Cincinnati: Curtis & Jennings. New York: Eaton & Mains.

|| Origin and Development of the Nicene Theology. By Hugh M. Scott, D.D. 390 pp. \$1.50. Chicago: Chicago Theological Seminary Press.

* The Bible as Literature. By Prof. Richard G. Moulton, Ph.D., the Rev. John P. Peters, D.D., Prof. A. B. Bruce, D.D., and others. With an Introduction by the Rev. Lyman Abbott, D.D. 375 pp. \$1.50. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

† The Gospel for an Age of Doubt. By Henry Van Dyke. 468 pp. \$1.75. New York: The Macmillan Company.

‡ Bible Selections for Daily Devotion. Selected and arranged by Sylvanus Stall, D.D. 686 pp. \$1.00. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

|| Margaret Ogilvy. By her son J. M. Barrie. 207 pp. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

"English Synonyms and Antonyms."* The numerous illustrative examples show a fine distinction in the meaning and use of words, and the notes explaining the correct use of prepositions help to do away with some of the perplexities of our language. It is an excellent work for reference and special study.

A collection of original pen and ink sketches by one of the most celebrated of the English comic artists is entitled "Phil May's Gutter-Snipes."† From the frontispiece to the last of the fifty-four sketches the pathetic humor of the side of life which he has studied is potently delineated.

A brief work in which incidents of travel are recited in a spirited manner is "Grecian Days,"‡ and added to these are vivid descriptions of places visited and interesting historical sketches, making a text delightful to read. It is done up in exquisite binding of blue and white vellum stamped in gold, and the illustrations in photogravure are on Japan paper.

In "Health in the Home"§ the author has attributed most of the sickness in the world to its proper cause—not to "the hand of Providence" but "to ignorance and neglect and custom." How to improve the physical condition and preserve the health are the subjects presented in a plain but forceful way, and the book is full of practical information, containing among other good things illustrated descriptions of Swedish gymnastic exercises suitable for home practice.

Any one who wishes to obtain a general knowledge of modern French literature§ should read a short book by Benjamin W. Wells, Ph. D. The first three chapters contain an interesting account of the development of literature in France previous to the present century. Following these is a more detailed history of the literary schools and the writers belonging to them. Biography and criticisms are happily blended and the attention of the reader is called to the most interesting and best works of the modern writers of French literature.

Education, politics and patriotism, science and religion are the subjects treated in a book containing lectures¶ by Dr. J. T. Edwards. These entertaining addresses, some of them delivered as early as 1862, represent the able lecture work of an earn-

est advocate of all that is highest and best in life.

A book for proof-readers, journalists, and literary people generally is "Why We Punctuate."* It is a book of less than two hundred pages, illustrating the purposes for which marks of punctuation are used. Many examples and but few rules are given, the author showing by a process of reasoning the relation of the "science of punctuation" to the real meaning of language.

The "New American Supplement to the Latest Edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica"† is much like other works of reference intended to give general information on a wide variety of subjects in every department of knowledge. This work is in five volumes, each of which contains a large number of portraits of eminent men and women, beside many other illustrations belonging to scientific, geographical, literary, and commercial articles. The index of the entire set has been placed in the last volume, and, while quite complete, its utility would have been greatly increased by adding to each item the number of the volume in which it is to be found. Neatly bound in cloth, they will make a fine appearance on any library shelf.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

JOHN B. ALDEN, NEW YORK.

Kent, William, M.D. Substantial Christian Philosophy.

D. APPLETON & COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Stuart, Eleanor. Stonepastures. 75 cts.

Tracy, Roger S., M.D. Hand-Book of Sanitary Information for Household. 50 cts.

Kinsley, William W. Old Faiths and New Facts. \$1.50.

Glascok, Will H. Stories of Columbia. \$1.00.

Butterworth, Hezekiah. The Knight of Liberty: A Tale of the Fortunes of La Fayette. \$1.50.

AUTHORS' PUBLISHING ASSOCIATION, 114 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK.

Block, Henri. Property of Don Gilbar. 50 cts.

THE BAKER & TAYLOR CO., NEW YORK.

Webb-Peploe, Rev. H. W. The Victorious Life: The Post-Conference Addresses Delivered at East Northfield, Mass., August, 1895. \$1.25.

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